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The psychological effects of parental pressure to achieve on children.

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THE PSYCHOLOGICAL EFFECTS OF PARENTAL PRESSURE TO ACHIEVE ON CHILDREN

by

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ABSTRACT

There seems to be a trend toward a new type of childrearing in which parents push their children to achieve. The psychological effects of parental pressure, however, have been virtually ignored by researchers. The present study examined children's responses to parent pressure. This phenomenon was explored in the context of a model, which traced the influences of SES and sex of a child on parent expectations, through to the perception of these expectations on the child's psychological functioning. One hundred and eighteen families (children enrolled in sixth through eighth grade and their parents) participated in the study. Questionnaires assessing expectations were completed by the parents, and questionnaires assessing perception of expectations and psychological outcomes were completed by the children. The overall Parent Pressure Model identified three child outcomes which were explained by the same causal sequence. The child outcomes included self-esteem, school interest, and clinical symptoms. The Self-Esteem Model and the revised School Interest and Clinical Symptoms Models supported a basic chain from SES and sex of child to parent expectations, to perception of expectations, to the subsequent child outcome. As a child's perception of parent expectations increased, a child's self-esteem increased. The revised models included a direct link between parent expectations and the child's school interest and clinical

symptoms. As parent expectations and perception of expectations increased, a child's school interest increased. As parent expectations increased, a child's clinical symptoms decreased, but as perception of parent expectations increased, a child's clinical symptoms increased in a curvilinear manner. Negative effects of perception of parent expectations on clinical symptoms were most evident in low achievers. The overall results indicate that while parental pressure puts some children at risk for developing clinical symptoms, it generally has favourable effects on children. Implications for parenting and directions for future research were discussed.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Popular literature indicates a trend towards a new type of childrearing (Balaban, 1987; Brodsky-Chenfeld, 1985; Bucknam-Brinley, 1986; Elkind, 1973a, 1981a, 1986a; Mitchell, 1991). Parents, under the new ABC's of "Anxiety, Betterment and Competition" (Brodsky-Chenfeld, 1985), are pushing their children to achieve earlier than ever. Parents have always had high ambitions for their children, but contemporary children often have parents who are older, richer, more competitive, and firmly convinced that children need to be programmed for success. The baby-boomers are becoming parents and are changing the course of childhood as they have changed so many other facets of life. Many new parents want to raise "superbabies". Parents are enrolling in courses at Glen Doman's Better Baby Institute in hopes of multiplying their babies' intelligence (Bucknam-Brinley, 1986), registering their young children in French Immersion or prestigious nursery schools, and coaching their children in such areas as literature and art history with nightly reading and flash card sessions. Children are learning Shakespeare characters before learning nursery rhymes, and the difference between a Picasso and a da Vinci before learning to scribble. Parents are also taking their young children to exercise at baby gymnasiums, to play violin at Suzuki schools, to ski down their own slopes, to polish

their computer skills at computer school, and to "waterbaby" swimming lessons.

Although intensive education in the early years is emphasized in popular literature (Balaban, 1987; Brodsky-Chenfeld, 1985; Elkind, 1973a, 1981; Samuels, 1986), it has virtually been ignored by empirical investigators. Much of the popular literature has indicated that the encouragement of rigourous education has negative effects on children (Ingham-Berlage, 1983; Elkind, 1981a, 1986b, 1987a, 1987b). As Elkind (1987a) indicates, "parents want superkids, but what they are getting are superproblems" (p. 61). Little research has examined the potential effects of exposure to early rigourous education. Given that many parents are pushing their children (Balaban, 1987; Charlesworth, 1986; Elkind, 1981a, 1981b, 1986b, 1987b; Kenniston, 1976; Langway, Jackson, Zabarsky, Shirley & Whitmore, 1983; Werner & Strother, 1987; Whipp, 1988), the need for research in this area becomes evident. The purpose of this study was to examine the psychological effects of parental pressure to achieve on children.

While the term pressure has been widely discussed by the public and in popular literature (Balaban, 1987; Brodsky-Chenfeld, 1984; Elkind, 1981a, 1981b, 1987a; Ingham-Berlage, 1983; Samuels, 1986; Werner & Strother, 1987), in the empirical literature it has not been clearly defined. In the developmental psychology literature, a few studies

have examined perceived parental pressure. A study by Eskilson, Wiley, Muehlbauer and Dodder (1986) examined perceived parental pressure in relation to adolescent self-esteem and deviant behaviour. As well, Skaalvik (1983) examined perceived parental pressure, self-esteem, and perceived value of school in relation to achievement. Although the studies are worthwhile, the construct of pressure was not defined.

Weiner (1988) defines pressure as "expectations and demands that one behave in a certain way" (p. 129). In the studies above, the way the term pressure was used was synonymous with parental expectations and behaviour for a high level of academic achievement. It is acknowledged that parents often expect not only academic achievement but exceptional ability in sports, music, dance and a myriad of other activities. However, the present study was limited to pressure in the academic realm. For the present study pressure was defined as "the expectations and corresponding behaviour for a high level of academic achievement".

In order to address the psychological effects of parental pressure to achieve on children, this chapter is organized into three sections. The recent history of academic education of young children will be reviewed initially. A model depicting the course of parental pressure will then be presented. The model will trace the influences on parental expectations through to the influence

of these expectations on children. Research addressing the psychological effects of parental pressure to achieve on children will then be examined.

Recent History of Academic Education of Young Children

The emphasis on academic education of young children began in the 1960's. There are many reasons for the interest in early academic education. During this turbulent decade, education seemed to be the scapegoat of political and social movements (Elkind, 1973b, 1981a, 1986b; Webster, 1986). It was criticized on two accounts. First of all, events such as the launching of Sputnik by the Russians in 1957, the demise of child-centred progressive education, and the decline of children's school performance focused on fault finding in education. There was worry that Russia had not only caught up with America but had surpassed her in technological achievements. Close scrutiny revealed that children were poorly prepared for school. Consequently, parents were bombarded with information on the importance of learning in the early years. It was proposed that early childhood education would remedy educational deficiencies and better prepare children for school.

Secondly, education was criticized in conjunction with the civil rights movement (Elkind, 1973b, 1981a, 1986b; Webster, 1986). The movement highlighted the poor school performance of disadvantaged children, many of whom were black. It was argued that these children did not do well

because they came inadequately prepared. Consequently, Headstart programs were initiated to give disadvantaged children the preparation they required and to integrate black and white children in school.

Other sources of the push toward early academics was the combination of the Women's Liberation Movement, the shift from industrial to post-industrial economy, and the accelerated divorce rate (Elkind, 1973b, 1986b; Webster, 1986). The Women's Liberation Movement drew attention to women's need for choice in whether to stay home or pursue a career. At the same time, a post-industrial economy made use of more women in the workforce than an industrial economy. Divorce also contributed to the growing number of women in the workplace, since many divorced mothers worked to financially support their families. As a result of all these changes, there was an influx of mothers of young children into the workplace, increasing the demand for nursery school services and day care. According to Statistics Canada (1987), 53.9 percent of mothers of children under three years of age were working full or part-time in 1985, necessitating out-of-home care for many preschoolers.

The intellectual emphasis placed on early childhood education by these historical changes brought about new concepts and perceptions of parenting. Ingham-Berlage (1983) argues that the period of the parent as provider of

minimal supervision and in which the child grew at his/her own pace gave way to a new era of parent as supervisor and director of the child's development. Winn (1983) refers to this change in parenting as the change from the "age of protection" to the "age of preparation". Kenniston (1977) compares the new parenting role to that of a quasi-executive:

> parents today have a demanding new role choosing, meeting, talking with, and coordinating the experts and institutions that help bring up their children. No longer able to do it all themselves, parents are in some ways like the executives in a large firm - responsible for the smooth coordination of the many people and processes that must work together to produce the final product (p. 17).

The perceptions of children also changed with the times. Elkind (1987c) uses the term "competent child" in keeping with the new significance attached to academic education during the early years. He reports this new image of "competent child" is one of children having more capacity to learn academic skills than they actually have. Elkind (1987c) cites examples of how social scientists, influenced by the Zeitgeist, fostered this conception of "competent child" through misinterpretations of cognitive development facts about children. A misquote by Bruner (1960) "you can teach any child, any subject matter at any age in an intellectually responsible way" became the foundation for the "competent child" conception (cited in Elkind, 1987c,

p. 8). Bloom's (1964) statement that "4-year-olds had attained half of their intellectual ability" also contributed to the image of the "competent child" (cited in Elkind, 1987c, p. 9). Lastly, Hunt's (1961) idea that intelligence was malleable was in opposition to the mental testing establishment's supposed notion that intelligence was fixed (cited in Elkind, 1987c).

A Model Depicting the Course of Parental Pressure

There is currently no model depicting the course of parental pressure. The general framework for the course of parental pressure can be seen in models outlining the impact of parent expectations on child development. In order to develop a model of parental pressure, two such models will be examined. Seginer's (1983) model of achievement focuses on the antecedents of parents' expectations, and the factors mediating between these expectations and the child's academic achievement. The antecedents of parental expectations are feedback from school, parents' own aspirations, and parental knowledge. The mediating factors are parent behaviours and child's expectations. Research by Seginer (1985, 1986) on portions of her model support a relation between parent expectations and child achievement and a broader hierarchical effect of parent socioeconomic status, educational expectations, and achievement-related behaviour on the child's academic achievement. Marjoribank's (1986) model of aspiration formulation

includes gender, ability, and number of siblings as antecedents of parental expectations and child perception of parent expectations as a mediator between parent expectations and child aspirations. Marjoribanks elaborated, in part, Seginer's model by including child perception of parents' expectations, among other components.

Both of these models thus support the general contention that parental expectations have an effect on children. The child outcome in Seginer's model is child achievement and the child outcome in Marjoribank's model is child aspirations. Yet to be determined, however, is the effect of parental expectations on other aspects of the child's psychological functioning. A new model was developed, which integrated components of Seginer's and Marjoribank's models and extended the parent expectations-child outcome link to include other child psychological outcomes. This will enable the estimation of the effects of parental expectations on psychological outcomes of the child other than achievement and aspirations. A model is proposed to examine the phenomenon of parental pressure (Figure 1). The proposed model traces influences on parental expectations through to the influence of these expectations on the child's psychological functioning. It is argued that background factors [socioeconomic status (SES), ethnicity, and sex of child] and parents' own aspirations affect parental expectations, which in turn lead to parental

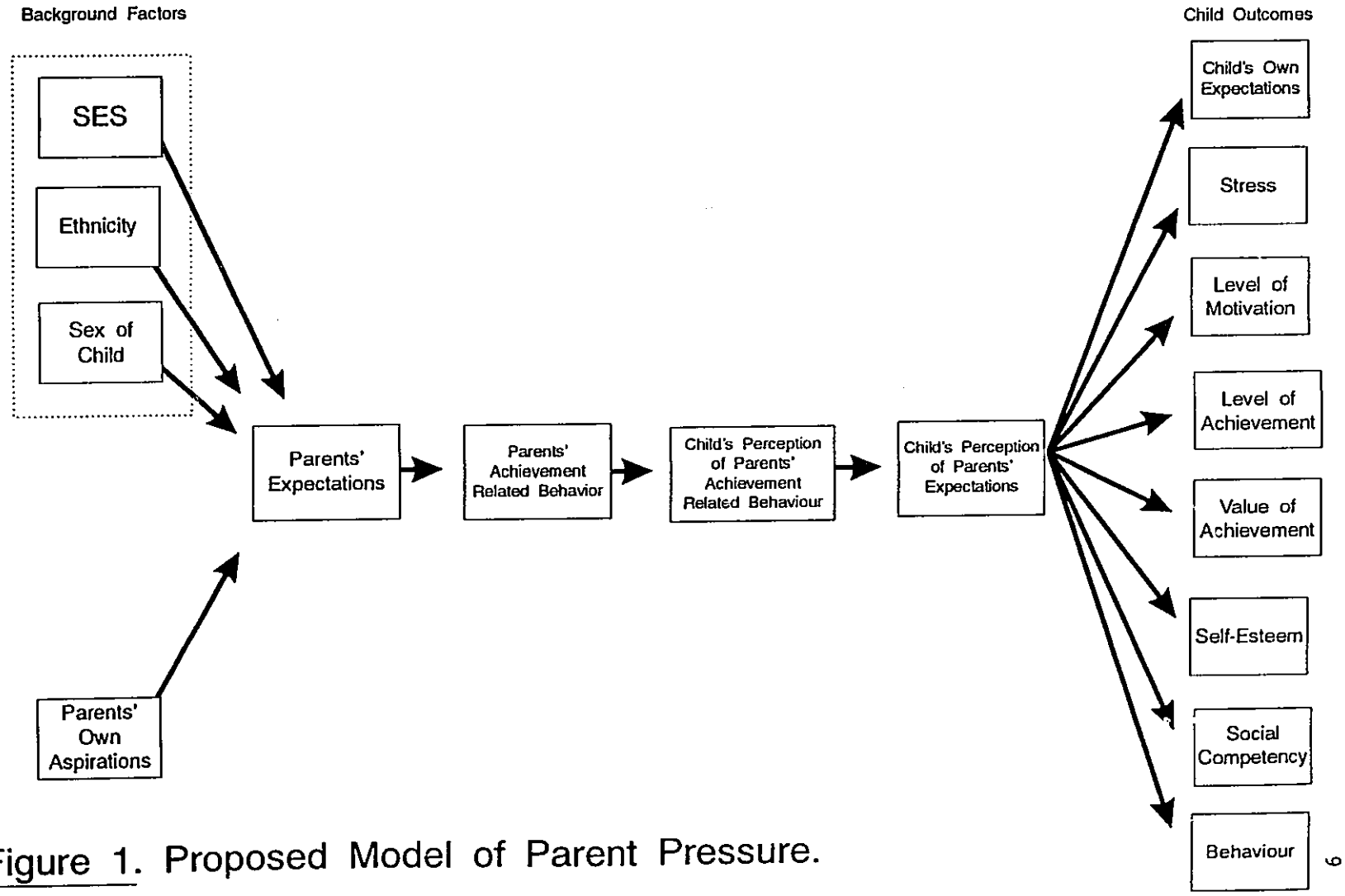

Figure 1. Proposed Model of Parent Pressure.

behaviour toward the child. The child's perception of parental expectations, deduced from parental behaviour, then influences the child's psychological functioning. The child psychological outcomes include level of stress, level of motivation, value of achievement, self-esteem, social competency, behaviour, and own education and job expectations.

With this model, the concept of parental pressure can be examined. Recall that parental pressure is defined as expectations and corresponding behaviour for a high level of academic achievement. Parents' expectations and parents' behaviour, two components of the model, form the basis for parental pressure. The child's perception of parents' expectations and corresponding behaviour for a high level of academic achievement form the basis for the functional definition of parental pressure.

It is argued that the child's perception of parental expectations and corresponding behaviour for a high level of achievement (functional definition of parental pressure) influences the child's psychological functioning. Potential psychological problems that may arise are: stress, lack of motivation, low achievement, valuing achievement solely as a means for receiving praise and attention, low self-esteem, suppression of social competency, and behaviour problems.

In all likelihood, the selection of the model's components does not exhaust the list of components which

serve as sources of pressure. Background factors such as age, number of siblings, or abilities are not included. Only what are assumed to be the main background factors are included. Expectations of others, such as teachers and peers, are not explicitly mentioned. Yet, their importance is not to be underestimated because they are undoubtedly sources of pressure. Since the present study is focused specifically on parental pressure, only parental expectations are included. The model will be presented with definitions of its various components, to be followed by a review of pertinent literature.

Definitions of the Components of the Parental Pressure Model The components of the parent pressure model are defined as follows:

a) background - the SES, the ethnicity of the family, the sex of the child

b) parents' own aspirations - the mobility action the parents take to meet the job goals they set for themselves

c) parent educational expectations -

i) idealistic expectations - the dreams, wishes and hopeful anticipations that parents hold for their child in the academic realm (Seginer, 1985)

ii) realistic expectations - the specific beliefs and standards of academic performance set by parents for their children (Seginer, 1985)

d) parents' achievement related behaviour - the parents' actions which are related to children's achievement

e) child's perception of parent behaviour - the child's view of the parents' actions which are related to children's achievement

f) child's perception of parent expectations - what the child interprets from parental behaviours about parental expectations

g) child psychological outcomes - the child's feelings of self and level of performance

Parental pressure was defined as parent expectations and corresponding behaviour for a high level of academic achievement. However, the functional definition of parental pressure was a child's perception of parent expectations and corresponding behaviour for a high level of academic achievement.

Background It is argued that family background influences parents' educational and occupational expectations of their children. Background characteristics such as the SES, the ethnicity of the family, and the sex of the child are seen to be major contributors to parents' expectations.

Research indicates that higher SES parents have been found to have higher educational expectations (Bronfenbrenner, 1958; Brook, Whiteman, Peisach, and Deutsch, 1979), and higher occupational expectations for

their children (Brook et al., 1979) than lower SES parents. Bronfenbrenner (1958) found that higher SES children are expected to learn to take care of themselves earlier, to accept more responsibility at home, and above all, to progress further in school than lower SES children. These results are in accordance with Wylie and Hutchin's (1967) finding that higher SES children more often report that their parents encouraged them to attend college. Similarly, higher SES adults expressed more concern about the importance or necessity of education than lower SES adults (Cloward & Jones, 1963) and substantially fewer higher SES adults recommended skilled labour positions for young people than lower SES adults (Hyman, 1953).

Ethnic and racial differences have also been found to affect parents' educational and occupational aspirations for their children. Rosen (1959) reported that Greeks, Jews, Protestants, and Negroes possessed higher educational aspirations for their children than Italians and French Canadians, even when SES was controlled. Studies have compared black and white parents' educational and occupational aspirations for their children and have found that black parents have higher educational aspirations for their children than white parents (Brook et al., 1974; Pettigrew, 1964; Wylie & Hutchins, 1967). While the educational aspirations of black parents are higher than whites, studies indicate that the occupational aspirations

of black parents are the same or lower than white parents (Brook et al., 1974; Rosen, 1959).

A more consistent picture emerges in terms of parental educational and occupational aspirations for sons and daughters. Brook et al. (1974) found that parents' educational and occupational aspirations were higher for boys than girls in both grades one and five. At the fifth grade, the differences in parental educational aspirations for boys and girls were particularly marked. Using older subjects from grades 7 to 12, Wylie and Hutchins (1967) also found that proportionately more boys than girls were encouraged by their parents to attend college. Conversely, Intons-Peterson's (1985) study found that fathers had almost equivalent educational goals for their children. However, they were more likely to desire postgraduate training for their sons than their daughters. Findings indicated that sons were expected to get good jobs or to be successful in their jobs more often than daughters. The most common aspirations reported for daughters was that "she do whatever she wants to", whereas this response occurred less often for the sons.

Parents' Own Aspirations No doubt parents' own aspirations play a role in determining their expectations of their children. However, there is scarce and sometimes indirect evidence in this area. Kahl (1953) reported that lower-class fathers with aspirations of "getting ahead"

encouraged their sons to take school seriously and aim for college, while lower-class fathers content with "getting by" rarely considered college education seriously for their sons and felt that life was such that their sons would be like them. Parents' unfulfilled aspirations also play a part in defining parents' expectations for their children. Parents who were dissatisfied with their lives tended to express ambitions for their children in terms of their own dissatisfaction and encouraged them to take school seriously (Newson, Newson & Barnes, 1977).

Parent Expectations of their Children

> An expectation is a conscious or unconscious evaluation which one person forms of another, or of himself, which leads the evaluator to treat the person evaluated in such a manner as though the assessment were correct. Further, the evaluator anticipates that the person evaluated will act in a manner consistent with the assessment (Finn, 1972, p.390).

In the realm of education, parents convey two types of expectations to their children: idealistic (also aspirations) and realistic expectations (Seginer, 1985). She suggests that idealistic expectations are the dreams, wishes, and hopeful anticipations parents hold for their children's educational attainment, whereas realistic expectations are the specific beliefs and standards of academic performance set by parents for their children. She further enunciates the distinction by the dimension of time. Idealistic expectations refer to the distant future of adult life, and realistic expectations refer to the here and now.

Review of parents' educational expectations research indicates that researchers define parental expectations by emphasizing the idealistic aspects (Douglas, 1964; Pugh, 1976; Woelfel & Haller, 1971), the realistic aspects (Entwisle & Hayduck, 1978; Gigliotti & Brookover, St. John, 1972) or, occasionally, both idealistic and realistic aspects (Seginer, 1985, 1986). Since parents communicate both kinds of expectations, both will be considered in the model.

It is argued that these expectations are transmitted via parental behaviour. Although this argument has been made by others (Au & Harackiew, 1986; Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986), only Seginer (1986) offers data to support the contention that parental expectations affect parents' achievement related behaviours. The general premise that expectations affect behaviour, however, has been well documented in teacher expectations research (e.g., Cooper, 1979; Rosenthal, 1974). Results show that teachers are warmer and more encouraging toward children for whom they have high expectations than children for whom they have low expectations. While this research is not directly related to parental expectations and behaviours, its implications as well as Seginer's (1986) findings, support the general argument of the proposed model.

Parent Behaviour Parental behaviour has long been recognized as an important influence on children, and

consequently, considerable research has been generated. Two major streams of research seem evident: objectively described parental behaviour and the child's perception of parental behaviour. Most of the research has focused on parental behaviour, and a number of researchers have developed classification strategies to describe parenting (Baumrind, 1967; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Baumrind (1967) divided parenting styles into three categories: authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive. The authoritative parent encourages the child to be independent but still places limits, demands and controls on the child's actions. There is a high degree of warmth and nurturance toward the child. According to Baumrind, the authoritarian parent is restrictive, has a punitive orientation, exhorts the child to follow his or her directions, places limits and controls on the child. The permissive parent is excessively lax and inconsistent in his or her discipline, and encourages the free expression of the children's impulses. There is a reasonably affectionate relationship between the parent and the child. More recently, Maccoby and Martin (1983) revealed a scheme for categorizing parenting styles. They classified parenting styles into four categories: authoritative-reciprocal, authoritarian, permissive-indulgent, and permissive-indifferent. The authoritative-reciprocal parent and the authoritarian parent are similar to the authoritative parent and the authoritarian parent

respectively described by Baumrind (1967). Maccoby and Martin further divided the permissive parents into categories of permissive-indulgent and permissive-indifferent. The permissive-indulgent parent allows the child a great deal of freedom and does not condemn negative behaviour on the part of the child. In comparison, the permissive-indifferent parent is neglectful and very uninvolved in the child's life.

Parenting styles are actually a combination of parent behaviours. Seginer (1986, 1988) classifies parental behaviours into positive and negative behaviours (relation with achievement). She contends that positive behaviours are instigating behaviours, which act to create a favourable climate for the child's academic pursuits. Positive behaviours are represented by information held concerning child's school performance, supplementation of child's education, and parent engagement in continued education. A positive behaviour yet not a conceptually seen instigating behaviour is positive reinforcement. The negative behaviours are responsive behaviours, which involve reacting to information about the child's behaviour in school. Negative behaviours are represented by additional contact with school and punishment.

Onocha and Okpala (1987) also examined different types of parents' behaviours. In their study, parents' behaviours included reinforcement of educational expectations,

knowledge of child's educational progress, and family involvement in educational activities.

Child's Perception of Parent Behaviour Indeed, parents hold certain expectations and have certain patterns of behaviour, but it is argued that it is the child's perception of these that is important. This is in accordance with Gecas and Schwalbe's (1986) finding of only a modest correspondence between parents' reports of their behaviour and children's perception of this behaviour, underscoring the point that reality is indeed in the eye of the beholder. Children's perception of parental behaviour can be classified in many ways. Review of the literature on the children's perception of parental behaviour indicated primary concerns with parental affection, dominance and punishment (Goldin, 1969). Siegelman (1965) identified three factors which describe the domain of children's perception of parental behaviour as loving, demanding and punishing. Similarly, Schaefer (1965) identified three factors: acceptance versus rejection, psychological autonomy versus psychological control and firm control versus lax control. A large proportion of the children's perception of parental behaviour studies deal with variables classifiable as some variant of acceptance versus rejection and love (Cox, 1962; Kohn & Carroll, 1960; Rosen, 1964). Many of the studies reported in the literature investigated variables similar to psychological autonomy-psychological

control and demands (Cox & Leaper, 1961; Emmerich, 1961). In addition, many studies examined children's perception of punishment by parents (Kagan & Lemkin, 1960; Medinnus, 1965).

Just as Seginer (1986, 1988) classified parental behaviours into positive and negative behaviours, Hazzard, Christensen and Margolin (1983) classified children's perception of these parental behaviours into positive behaviours and negative behaviours. According to Hazzard et al., positive behaviours include positive reinforcement, comfort, talk time, involvement in decision-making, time together, positive evaluation, allowing independence, assistance, and nonverbal affection; and negative behaviours include privilege removal, criticism, command, physical punishment, yelling, threatening, time-out, nagging, and ignoring.

Marjoribanks (1986, 1988) examined adolescents' perception of parental behaviour. Parental behaviours included reinforcement of educational expectations, knowledge of child's educational progress, family involvement in educational activities, encouragement in relation to school, and general interest in the child's education.

Child's Perception of Parent Expectations It is argued that children's perception of parental expectations deduced from parental behaviour then influence the children's

psychological functioning. Schaefer (1965) reports that a child's perception of his parents' behaviour may be more related to his adjustment than is the actual behaviour of his parents. Ausubel et al. (1954) agree that parental behaviour effects the child's development only to the extent and in the form in which he or she perceives it.

Studies have looked at three components of parental behaviour. One component is the children's perception of parental behaviour (Goldin, 1969; Hazzard et al., 1983; Marjoribanks, 1986; Medinnus, 1965; Rosen, 1964; Schaefer, 1965; Seigelman, 1965). Another component is the effect of parental behaviour on children's development, without taking into account children's perception (Baumrind, 1967; Egeland & Sroufe, 1981; Loeb, Horst & Horton, 1980; Onocha & Okpala, 1987; Pulkkinen, 1982; Seginer, 1986). Finally, only a few studies have examined the effect of children's perception of parental behaviour on children's development. Results indicate that children's perception of parental behaviour is positively related to child adjustment (Serot & Teevan, 1961), child behaviour (Bronfenbrenner, 1961; Hazzard et al., 1983), school achievement (Morrow & Wilson, 1961; Prasad, Sinha & Prasad, 1979), child aspirations (Marjoribanks, 1978a, 1978b, 1986), and self-concept (Crase, Foss & Colbert, 1981; Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986; Hazzard et al., 1983). Other studies have examined the influence of children's perception of parental behaviour on their

development but have been limited to deviant children. Delinquent, maladjusted, clinic, and underachieving children were more likely to perceive parents as rejecting (Cox, 1962; Cox & Leaper, 1961). Delinquents also perceived parents as undercontrolling (Schaefer, 1965; William, 1958), while maladjusted, clinic, and underachieving children were more apt to perceive parents as overcontrolling (Hawkes, Burchinal & Gardiner, 1957; Morrow & Wilson, 1961). These studies support the contention that children's perception of parental expectations deduced from parental behaviour are related to their development. Given this general trend, it may be fruitful to study the relationship between parental pressure and a child's psychological functioning. The effect of perceived parental pressure on aspects of the child's psychological functioning is considered in the model. Aspects of the child's psychological functioning that are included are: level of stress, level of motivation to learn, level of achievement, value of achievement, self-esteem, social competency, and behaviour.

Psychological Effects of Parental Pressure to Achieve on Children

Parental pressure to achieve may lead to psychological problems in the child such as: stress, lack of motivation to learn, low achievement, valuing achievement solely as a means for receiving praise and attention, low self-esteem, suppression of social competency, and behaviour problems.

Research addressing these effects of parental pressure to achieve on children will follow.

Stress One danger of parental pressure to achieve on children at an early age is that it may create excessive and unhealthy stress. According to Schultz and Heuchert (1983), stress can be viewed in general as "any disruptive demand placed on an individual's capacity to function that leads to deterioration in the body" (p. 21). In a psychological sense, "how an individual interprets, reacts to, and acts upon the demand determines the effect it will have" (p. 21). Parental pressure to achieve may be stressful to children, putting disruptive or excessive demands on children. Stress demands can either be acute or chronic (Sterling Honig, 1986). Parental pressure may be categorized as a chronic type of stress. Other sources of chronic stress for children are divorce (Blom et al., 1982; Brenner, 1984; Coddington, 1984; Holmes & Rahe, 1967; Humphrey & Humphrey, 1985; Kurdek, 1981), death of a family member (Blom et al., 1982; Brenner, 1984; Coddington, 1984; Holmes & Rahe, 1967), child abuse and neglect (Blom et al., 1982; Brenner, 1984), having an alcoholic parent (Blom et al., 1982; Brenner,1984), having a step-parent (Blom et al., 1982; Brenner, 1984; Coddington, 1984), poverty (Brenner, 1984; Riegle, 1982), separation from parents (Brenner, 1984; Cain & Staver, 1976; Fritsch & Burkhead, 1981), and birth of a new sibling (Brenner, 1984; Coddington, 1984). According to

Selye (1976), prolonged stress leads to resistance or adaptation in which the body strives to ward off or adjust to the stressor. If, however, appropriate adjustment is not made, the resultant depletion of body resources leads to behavioural disorganization, and ultimately, collapse or exhaustion. Similarly, Sterling Honig (1986) reports that chronic stress can lead to long-term disturbances in children. Children cope with stress using a variety of strategies such as ignoring unpleasant situations, finding compromise solutions, finding and accepting substitute satisfactions and comforts, defensive processes, and internalizing and externalizing behaviour (Sterling Honig, 1986).

Reactions to chronic stress may be similar to reactions to parental pressure to achieve. Elkind (1987a) contends that increased pressure on children to excel in academics, sports and interpersonal skills at too early an age creates stress and "burnout". This is in accordance with Blom, Cheney, and Snoddy's (1982) finding that teachers and other school professionals identified parental pressure to achieve as one of the situations that often cause stress in children. Similarly, Sterling Honig (1986) reports that high parental expectations can produce stress in children. She adds that in response to stress, children's immune system activity decreases and as a result, they may get sick more often. Pediatricians report increased stress-related

symptoms such as headaches, stomachaches and high blood pressure in children (Elkind, 1981b). Elevated blood cholesterol levels have also been identified in many children (Elkind, 1981b). Berenson found that Type A children had more cholesterol in their bloodstream than Type B children (as cited in Elkind, 1981a). He concluded that competitiveness, among other factors, influences the early development of coronary artery disease and hypertension. A national survey of 33,000 youths aged 9, 12, and 15 during the 1984-1985 school year revealed that more than 25% of the 9 year olds, 22% of the 12 year olds and 20% of the 15 year olds had trouble sleeping due to worry (cited in O'Donnell, 1986).

Lack of Motivation Another danger of parental pressure to achieve on young children is that it may lessen a child's motivation to learn. Children are natural learners and when their natural curiosity is thwarted or restricted by parents' own learning priorities, their motivation to learn may lessen (Elkind, 1987b). Brodsky-Chenfeld (1985) agrees that children who lose their spirit of adventure, their willingness to risk in new experiences, their ability to play with ideas and concepts, may be considered "deprived." She elaborates that such children may even be considered "handicapped." Children learn from parent instruction, but they may be learning the wrong things such as fear and dependency on parents for approval and guidance. Elkind

(1987b) reports that children pressured to achieve may become afraid to take initiative and be dependent on adults to direct all their activity. Werner and Strother (1987) also report that children who are pressured to read and perform at a very early age can sometimes be cautious and afraid to make mistakes. Elkind (1986b) describes a study by McGraw (1935), a classic study of the contributions of "nature and nurture" to motor development, and the follow-up which show the risk of too much adult intervention in children's learning. In her study, she trained one twin, named Johnny, to do a number of motor tasks; and the other twin, named Jimmy, she did not train. Johnny soon surpassed Jimmy in the skills in which he had been trained. However, after the training was discontinued, Jimmy soon caught up with his brother. Several years after the study, a psychiatrist examined the twins and reported a striking difference in the twins' approach to learning. Johnny, the trained twin, was insecure and always seemed to be looking to adults for direction and approval. Jimmy, the untrained twin, was quite different. He was confident and undertook activities on his own.

Low Achievement It is argued that the relationship between parental expectations and children's achievement is curvilinear, with moderate parental expectations having positive effects on children's achievement, and low and high parental expectations having negative effects. Positive

relations have been found between moderate parental expectations (Eccles & Jacobs, 1986; Entwisle & Hayduk, 1978; St. John, 1972; Seginer, 1986; Yee & Eccles, 1988), perceived moderate parental expectations (Au & Harackiewicz, 1986; Gigliotti & Brookover, 1975; Prasad et al, 1979), moderate expectations of others who are significant to a child (Woelfel & Haller, 1971) and a child's achievement. Lack of parental involvement has been associated with disruptions in cognitive development, achievement and school performance in children (Pulkkinen, 1982; Seegmiller & King, 1975). Little research has examined the effect of high parental expectations on children's achievement. A study by Metcalf and Gaier (1987) which examined parenting patterns found when parents pressured their adolescents to obtain good grades in order to gain acceptance into superior vocational, academic, and social settings, it led to reactions of underachievement. Elkind (1987b) reports that as a consequence of parental pressure, a large number of young children will probably experience learning problems at an age at which most children in the past were not even in school. Parental behaviour such as positive reinforcement of school performance and information held concerning child's progress were positively related to the child's level of achievement, whereas punishment of school performance and contact with school were negatively correlated with the child's level of achievement (Seginer,

1986). In order to further examine the effects of parental pressure on children's achievement, findings of research on early reading instruction and research on children who enter school at a young age will be presented.

In the area of early reading instruction, research suggests that pressure to learn early is ineffective and creates difficulties for children. Feitelson, Tehori and Levinberg-Green (1982) found that, within a few months of instruction, older kindergarten children acquired the rudiments of decoding and achieved more in reading comprehension than younger kindergarten children. Using a sample of first graders, they also found that older children outperformed the younger ones in reading comprehension. They concluded that children reach an optimal level of cognitive and affective development, and children experience more difficulties when reading instruction is attempted before that stage is reached than when reading instruction is delayed a few months. According to Elkind (1985), a majority of children can learn to read with ease if they are not hurried into it.

Of children who enter school at a young age, the literature indicates that early school starters receive poorer achievement test scores (Huff, 1984; Uphoff, 1985, cited in Uphoff & Gilmore, 1986), receive poorer grades in primary school (Gilmore, 1984, cited in Uphoff & Gilmore, 1986; Mawhinney, 1964), receive poorer grades above junior

high school (Forester, 1955), and repeat more grades (Mawhinney, 1964) than children who enter school later. Although there is little research dealing directly with the effect of high parental expectations on children's achievement, research on early reading instruction and children who enter school at a young age suggests that parental pressure on young children to achieve ironically may be detrimental to their achievement.

Achievement as a Means of Receiving Praise and Attention A consequence of parental pressure to achieve on children is that children may value achieved tasks solely as a means for receiving praise and attention. There are two types of achievement motivation which have been shown to operate. Intrinsic motivation is the desire to be effective and perform a behaviour for its own sake, whereas extrinsic motivation is being moved by external rewards and punishments. Parents who push their children to achieve likely use material rewards as a way of accomplishing desired behaviour. Generally, material rewards are effective in producing desired behaviour. However, the phenomenon of the overjustification effect can be applied to parental pressure. Children who begin to see rewards as their motive for performing the task may lose their intrinsic enjoyment of it. The already justifiable activity becomes overjustified by the promise of added reward. Studies have shown that children who were promised rewards

for playing with an interesting puzzle or drawing pictures later exhibited less interest in it than children who did not expect a reward (Deci, 1975; Lepper, Greene, & Nisbett, 1973). These findings are consistent with the popular literature. Werner and Strother (1987) presented a case study of a four year old boy who experienced negative effects as a result of pressure to read at an early age. The boy came from a family atmosphere of high expectations which revolved around his achievements. Although the boy's reading skills were advanced for his age, he did not appear to value reading except as a way to receive praise. Elkind (1981a) observed this praise-seeking behaviour among first-graders who had received formal reading instruction in kindergarten. He reported that reading seemed as if it had been inflicted on these children at great cost in time and effort, without their having any real understanding of the value of what they were learning. Werner and Strother (1987) agree that some children strive to be the "stars" and read for feedback and validation from adults more than for their own enjoyment. Similarly, Goodman and Goodman (1979) report that the intrinsic value of reading as a tool for learning or for gaining pleasure and enrichment is often not realized when children learn to use reading as a way to gain attention and adulation.

Low Self-Esteem Parental pressure to achieve may also put children's self-esteem at risk. Self-esteem is defined

"as the perceptions the child makes with regards to his/her competence or adequacy in several domains such as scholastic, athletic, physical appearance, social and behaviour, as well as his/her global worth" (Harter, 1985a). Parents who push their children to achieve often have unrealistically high expectations of their children. As a result of not always being able to meet these high expectations, low self-esteem arises (Ingham-Berlage, 1983; Werner & Strother, 1987). High parental expectations generate self-rejecting attitudes (Kaplan, 1982), strain (Ingham-Berlage, 1983), and discouragement (Werner & Strother, 1987) in children. A number of studies in the literature explore the important role parental behaviours play in the formation of self-esteem in children. Parental behaviours such as support (Gecas, 1971; Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986; Hazzard et al., 1983), participation (Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986; Hazzard et al., 1983), decision-making (Hazzard et al., 1983), control (Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986), allowing independence and positive reinforcement and evaluation (Hazzard et al., 1983) have been found to be positively related to the child's self-esteem. Furthermore, negative parental behaviours such as removing privileges, criticizing, commanding, threatening, and nagging have been found to be negatively related to the child's self-esteem (Hazzard et al., 1983). A study by Eskilson, Wiley, Muehlbauer and Dodder (1986) revealed that adolescents who

felt unduly pressured to achieve in school reported feelings of inability to reach goals set by their families and low self-esteem.

A byproduct of parental pressure may be dependency on others for self-esteem. According to Elkind (1986b), parental instruction creates social comparison which directs children to look primarily to adults for approval and to other children for appraisal. This works against the formation of self-esteem that children attain from completing their own tasks just for themselves. Another byproduct of parental pressure to achieve may be linking self-esteem to accomplishments. Children living in an atmosphere of high standards perceived their self-esteem directly related to their performance (Brodsky-Chenfeld, 1987; Ingham-Berlage, 1983; Werner & Strother, 1987). In addition to linking self-esteem to achievements, children may find their parents are so involved with their achievements, or lack of them, that they ignore their well-being. Ingham-Berlage (1983) reports that children sometimes feel their parents bask only in their accomplishments. She notes that involved parents not only see their children's lack of success as the children's failure but as their own failure as well.

Children pressured to achieve by their parents may not only experience low self-esteem but depression and suicidal behaviour as well (Batalden, cited in Langway et al., 1983;

Werner & Strother, 1987). Since 1960 the suicide rate has tripled among young people aged 10 to 19, according to Health and Welfare Canada (1987). Clearly suicide among children and adolescents is an escalating problem. Research points to several factors which have been found to contribute to a state of depression and suicidal behaviour in the young (Davis, 1983; Garfinkel & Golombek, 1977; Martin, Kocmarek & Gertridge, 1987). These factors include: psychological problems, low self-esteem, academic problems, unhappy home life, poor socialization skills and physical illness. Farberow (1985) and Pfeffer (1986) report that an antecedent of youth suicide is excessive standards for achievement or performance. Grollman (1988) notes that young people often believe they do not measure up to these unrealistic standards and that their families would be better off without them. Boldt and Solomon (1977) and Singer (1980) identified perceived failure as a "warning sign" of suicide (cited in Health & Welfare Canada, 1987). In a study of Toronto parasuicidal youths aged 8 to 18, the youths indicated too much pressure and criticism as a motive for their suicide attempts (cited in Health & Welfare Canada, 1987). Beginning school early also appears to be related to suicide. Uphoff and Gilmore (1984) examined youth suicides in Ohio and found that of male youth suicides, at least 45% had begun school early and of the

female youth suicides, a startling 83% had begun school early (cited in Uphoff & Gilmore, 1986).

Suppression of Social Competency Parental pressure to achieve on children may shortchange children's social competency. Social competency involves "participation in organizations, number of friends, contacts with friends, how well the child gets along with others, how well the child does things alone" (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1987). Social competency is an important aspect of children's development, which may be neglected by parents because of their focus on academic skills (Werner & Strother, 1987; White, 1975). Rammey warns, "pressure for academic achievement can take something away from other agendas such as the development of social skills" (cited in Langway et al., 1983, p. 65).

A case study by Werner and Strother (1987) portrays the effect of parental pressure to achieve on children's social competency. A boy, whose play was structured around academic activities and whose interactions with other children were limited to nursery school, had great difficulty interacting with peers.

Several research studies have indicated that children who entered school at a young age lagged in social development. Gott found that children who were about 4.9 years old at school entrance scored lower on a socio-emotional development scale and were judged lower on leadership than children who started school later

(Dissertation Abstracts, 1964). Using a broader range of children, from kindergarten to grade twelve, Forester (1955) reported that bright early school starters tended to be emotionally unstable and seldom showed leadership. These results are in accordance with Gross Pointe schools' longitudinal study which indicated one-third of the early entrants turned out to be poorly adjusted and three quarters lacked leadership skills (Mawhinney, 1964). The consequences of parental pressure on children to achieve is well summarized by Frias, "a baby can always learn cognitive skills, but it is very difficult to go back and redo emotional development" (cited in Langway et al., 1983, p. 68).

Behaviour Problems Parental pressure to achieve may also create behaviour problems in children. According to Achenbach and Edelbrock (1987), externalizing behaviour problems in children include aggression and delinquency. A number of studies have demonstrated that children who report higher rates of negative parental behaviours have a greater number of behaviour problems (Christensen, Phillips, Glascow & Johnson, 1983; Hazzard et al., 1983). Werner and Strother (1987) report that young children are sensitive to parental expectations, and they either incorporate these expectations or rebel against them. In their case study (1987), the boy rebelled as a result of family pressure for excellence. His aggressiveness was evidenced by his continual hitting of the

punching bag, crashing trucks and "hurting" the play people. Eskilson et al. (1986) indicate that adolescents who believe they do not meet familial achievement goals or perceive overwhelming pressures to succeed compensate by engaging in behaviours which violate adult norms. Among a sample of adolescents who felt pressured to achieve in school, they found that they also reported deviant activity. Results also indicated a significant connection between perceived parental pressure and the relationship between self-esteem and deviant behaviour. There were two distinct patterns under high levels of perceived parental pressure: adolescents with no decrease in self-esteem using drugs and alcohol, and adolescents with low self-esteem vandalizing property. Of further interest is the extent to which vandalism may be seen as a way adolescents lash out at a world that has apparently unattainable standards. Elkind (1986c) agrees that many children pressured to achieve react with anger and delinquent behaviour. He suggests that children are actually angry at themselves because they fear they cannot succeed academically, and instead of accepting the fact, they outwardly project their anger.

Summary

The present review has highlighted the psychological effects of parental pressure to achieve on children. The current trend is toward pushing children to achieve earlier than ever, and creating "superkids". Reasons for the push

toward early academics include criticism of education due to Russian technological advancement, the demise of child-centred progressive education, the decline of children's school performance, the initiation of Head Start in response to the Civil Rights Movement, and the increasing demand for daycare services as a result of the Women's Liberation Movement, the shift from post-industrial economy, and the accelerated divorce rate.

There is no model to examine the course of parental pressure. The general framework for the course of parental pressure was seen in models outlining the impact of parental expectations on children. A model of parent pressure was developed, which integrated components of Seginer's (1983) academic achievement model and Marjoribank's (1986) aspiration formation model and extended the parent expectations-child outcome link to include other child psychological outcomes. A model, depicting the course of parental pressure, was presented. The proposed model traced influences on parental expectations through to the influence of these expectations on the child's psychological functioning. It was argued that background factors (SES, ethnicity, and sex of child) and parents' own aspirations affect parental expectations, which, in turn, lead to parental behaviour toward the child. The child's perception of parental expectations deduced from parental behaviour then influences the child's psychological functioning. The

concept of parental pressure was applied to the model. It was argued that if the child's perception of parental expectations and behaviours are for a high level of achievement (functional definition of parental pressure), this influences the child's psychological functioning.

Within the context of the parental pressure framework, the issue of the impact of parental pressure on children's psychological functioning was covered. The child psychological outcomes included level of stress, level of motivation, level of achievement, value of achievement, self-esteem, social competency, and behaviour problems. Much of the existing body of popular literature suggested that parental pressure to achieve creates stress, lack of motivation to learn, poor achievement, valuing achievement solely as a means of receiving praise and attention, low self-esteem, suppression of social competency, and behaviour problems in children. The minimal research in the area, and research drawn from other areas such as sources of chronic stress, early reading instruction and entering school young, supported the suggestions in the popular literature. More research is needed to discern the effects of parental pressure.

Statement of Problem

Parental pressure to achieve is based on the notion that the more information taught, and the earlier, the smarter and better prepared children will be. Many parents

are responding to the promotion of early education of the young by attending parenting courses, registering their children in prestigious nursery schools, athletic clubs, and music classes, and flashing reading cards to them daily. There is an underlying philosophy that knowledge is a child's key to a successful future. However, there is no framework or model to examine the course of parental pressure. The trend of parents pushing their children to achieve is not a function of sound empirical research but rather, political and social factors. Much of the popular literature on rigourous education for children suggests negative effects. Although there is voluminous material on the subject in popular literature, there is little research which has examined the specific consequences of parental pressure on children's psychological functioning. The minimal research in the area has several conceptual and methodological weaknesses. The weaknesses include research which is primary aconceptual and atheoretical; a tendency to draw conclusions from anecdotal accounts or individual case studies; and the lack of clarity in defining measures. Given that many parents are pushing their children to achieve, that there is no framework or model to examine parental pressure, that much of the popular literature suggests negative effects, and that there is minimal research of the consequences, the implications of parental pressure to achieve on children clearly warrant further

investigation. Therefore, the purpose of the present study was to examine the psychological effects of parental pressure to achieve within the context of the proposed parental pressure model.

Specific Purpose This study attempted to address the above noted problems concerning the lack of a model and research for the psychological effects of parental pressure to achieve on children. The proposed parent pressure model was tested. Analyzed were the influences on parental expectations through to the influence of these expectations on the child's psychological functioning. Within the context of the model, the psychological effects of parental pressure on children were examined. The child psychological outcomes included: level of stress, level of motivation, level of achievement, value of achievement, self-esteem, social competency, behaviour, and own education and job expectations. While stress is manifested in many ways, the present study measured one major symptom, that of somatic complaints. Research about parental pressure to achieve and its psychological effects on children has significance for parents, teachers, and coaches, who are faced with educating the young. Research in this area can aid in determining the best approach to teaching children. Moreover, clinicians are concerned with children who develop psychological problems as a result of parental pressure.

Children chosen for the study were enrolled in sixth through eighth grade. Children in this age bracket were chosen because they belong to a generation whose parents emphasize achievement and the pressure to achieve long-term effects would be visible, they are not yet in the adolescent age bracket where adolescent psychological problems may confound parental pressure problems, and they are old enough to accurately complete questionnaires. Since the literature on the psychological effects of parental pressure to achieve for older children is sparse, the chapter covered the effects for children of all ages.

In order to address some of the methodological shortcomings evident in the sparse research on the psychological effects of parental pressure, the study followed a conceptual framework, drew objective data from a group of children and their parents, and defined measures as clearly as possible.

In summary, the present study tested the proposed model depicting the course of parent pressure and, within this general framework, investigated the psychological effects of parental pressure on children. The functional definition of parental pressure was the child's perception of parents' expectations and corresponding behaviour for a high level of academic achievement. The specific child psychological outcomes examined were amount of somatic complaints, level of motivation to learn, level of achievement, value of

achievement, self-esteem, social competency, behaviour, and own education and job expectations.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Sample

The unit of study was a "family" defined as a child and his or her parents. The sample included children enrolled in sixth through eighth grade in two school systems, and their parents. The children's classroom teachers provided achievement ratings of the children. The school systems were located within medium-sized metropolitan areas in Southwestern Ontario.

The first step involved the recruitment of subjects. Names of schools in varying SES areas were supplied by the school board administrations. Given SES has been found to be positively related to parental education expectations and that high parental expectations were a focus of the present study (Bronfenbrenner, 1958; Brook et al., 1979), extra schools in the high SES areas were chosen. Principals and teachers at the schools were approached about participating in the study. The schools, where staff agreed to participate, included four schools in high SES areas, two in middle SES areas, and two in low SES areas.

Questionnaires[1] were given to 449 families. Two hundred and forty-five families (54%) consented to participate in the study, 26 families (6%) declined to participate, and 178 families (40%) did not respond. Of the 245 families who granted permission, several families were

eliminated because they did not fit the inclusion criteria. Nine families (4%) were eliminated because the child was deemed learning disabled by the teacher, 26 families (11%) were eliminated because the child or the parent did not understand English sufficiently well to complete a questionnaire, and 1 family (.4%) was eliminated because the child was under the minimum age required to complete the questionnaires. Remaining were 209 families. Of the 209 families, further families were eliminated in order to obtain a homogenous sample. Thirty-nine families (19%) were eliminated because they were single parent families, 43 families (21%) were eliminated because only one parent in two parent families responded, 5 families (2%) were eliminated because the children did not complete the questionnaire, and 8 families (4%) were eliminated because the parents did not complete the questionnaire. The final sample included 118 families.

Procedure

The first step involved obtaining parent permission for the children to participate in the study. Parents received a sealed envelope containing a letter and a consent form (see Appendix A). The letter outlined the nature of the study, the endorsement of the study by the school board, assurance of confidentiality, and information that the child questionnaires were available from the principal or the present researcher for perusal. Parents were asked to

indicate either permission granted or not granted, along with their signature.

In addition to the letter and consent form, parents also received two identical copies of the parent packet, one for the mother and one for the father (if applicable) to complete. In order to ensure confidentiality, names only appeared on the consent form. Matching code numbers were assigned to the packets. Separate envelopes for the parent packets and the consent form were supplied. All completed consent forms and packets were returned with their child to the school and kept by the school principal. In order to obtain the highest return rate possible, teachers reminded children about the study.

Parent Measures

The parent packet was comprised of items about background information and the Parent Expectations Questionnaire (PEQ), which measured parents' educational expectations and behaviour toward the child. Description of the background information items and the PEQ follow.

Background Information

Information such as SES, ethnicity, and sex of child was obtained from several items on the packet.

SES was determined by Hollingshead's Two-Factor Index of Social Status (cited in Myers & Bean, 1968). The index is based on parents' occupation and education (see Appendix B for the index formula). Two open-ended items assessed the

two factors of parent occupation and education, with higher scores indicating higher occupation and education levels (see Appendix B also for the items and the coding scales). Inter-rater agreement for the two open-ended items was calculated from a 10% random selection of the questionnaires. The inter-rater agreement was .63 for the occupation and 1.00 for the education items. The inter-rater agreement for the occupation items was based on exact occupation category agreement. However, when agreement within one occupation category was calculated, the inter-rater agreement increased from .63 to .90. A higher aggregate score reflected a higher social status. The continuum of index of social status scores was used for the analyses, whereas groups of scores were used for demographics. The social status levels and the groups of scores are as follows: major business and professional (71-77); medium business, minor professional (61-70); skilled craft, clerical, sales (45-60); semi-skilled, machine operator (28-44); and unskilled, menial services (11-27).

Ethnicity was determined by (item number 29 on the parent packet): "please indicate your ethnic background." The ethnicity was classified according to the Index of Ethnic Groups (Statistics Canada, 1986) with minor modifications to fit the sample. If both parents had the same ethnic background, the family ethnicity was classified

as the common background; if one parent was North American and the other parent was from another ethnic background, the family ethnicity was considered the other ethnic background; and lastly, if both parents had different ethnic backgrounds, the family ethnicity was classified as mixed.

Parent Expectations Questionnaire (PEQ)

This questionnaire was designed to measure parents' own aspirations, parents' educational expectations, and parents' behaviour. The Parent Expectations Questionnaire (PEQ) was adapted by the author from the Family Environment Schedule (FES; Marjoribanks, 1979).[2] The PEQ, composed of 22 items, is presented in Appendix C as item numbers 6 to 28, excluding item number 24. Some items have a set of fixed choice responses, while other items are open-ended. A scoring key is supplied for the open-ended items (see Appendix D). The FES or adaptations of it have been used in several studies (Marjoribanks 1978a, 1978b, 1986, 1988a; Onacha & Okpala, 1987; Seginer, 1986, 1988). Good reliabilities have been reported with reliability estimates greater than .80 for 6 scales (Marjoribanks, 1978a), greater than .80 for 5 scales (Marjoribanks, 1978b), greater than .75 for 2 factor scales (Marjoribanks, 1986), .78 for the Parents' Expectations scale (Marjoribanks, 1988a), and ranging from .72 to .83 for 6 adapted scales (Onacha & Okpala, 1987).

The PEQ contains seven scales which assessed the domains of parents' own aspirations, parents' expectations, and parents' behaviour. The domains, with the corresponding scales and descriptions to measure them are as follows. For the sake of simplicity, abbreviated scale names for scales 3 through 6 are provided in brackets and will be referred to hereafter.

Parents' Own Aspirations

1) Parents' Own Aspirations: the mobility action the parents take to meet their job goals

Parent Expectations

2) Parents' Expectations for the Child: the expectations parents hold for their child in the academic realm

Parental Behaviour

3) Parent Reinforcement of Academic Expectations for the Child (Reinforcement): the frequency of parents' praise for child studying behaviour
4) Parent Collection of Information Regarding the Child's Achievement (Information): the amount of information parents' have about their child's achievement
5) Parent Promotion of Education (Education): parent participation in educational activities with the child

6) Activities Initiated (Initiation): parent initiation of child activities

7) Homework Demand: how much time the parent expects the child to do homework

A list of the item numbers for each scale is available in Appendix E. Inter-rater agreement for the PEQ open-ended items was calculated from a 10% random selection of the questionnaires. Inter-rater agreement ranged from .60 to 1.00 (M = 88.2). Seventy-seven percent of the items had inter-rater agreement in the .80 to 1.00 range.

Parent's Own Aspirations were gauged by the Parent's Own Aspirations scale (scale 1) of the PEQ. The scale contains one three part item (item number 25 on the PEQ): "a) Would you like to change your job? b) If yes, have you made plans to change your job, and c) If yes, what are the plans?" Responses were scored as follows: 1 (no aspirations, if have no plans to change job, whether content or not content with job); 2 (medium aspirations, if plan in future to take action toward job move); and 3 (high aspirations, if presently taking action toward job move). A higher score reflects higher parent aspirations for themselves.

Parent Expectations were measured by the Parents' Expectations for the Child scale (scale 2), which contains six items. Parental expectations for the child included the specific areas of education, grade, and job. The scale

contains items, such as "How much education do you want your child to receive?"; "What grades do you want your child to receive on his/her final report card?" and "What kind of job would you select for your child?" The PEQ includes idealistic and realistic expectation items for education, grade and job. The Parents' Expectations for the Child scale of the FES has been found to positively correlate with child's educational and occupational expectations (Marjoribanks, 1986) and academic performance (Marjoribanks, 1978b; Onacha & Okpala, 1987; Seginer, 1986, 1988).

The six parental expectations items were subjected to a factor analysis, which forced the items onto three factors with a varimax rotation. The three factors accounted for 69.5% of the variance. Orthogonal rotation was retained because of conceptual simplicity and ease of description. The factor loadings and percents of variance accounted for are shown in Table 1. Examination of this table indicates high loadings for the idealistic education expectation item and the realistic education expectation item on the first factor. An appropriate label for the first factor was that of Parent Education Expectations. The items with high loadings on the second factor, idealistic and realistic grade expectations, addressed a different aspect of parental expectations. Accordingly, the second factor was labelled Parent Grade Expectations. The third factor captured the

Table 1

Factor Loadings and Percentage of Variance for Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation on Parent Expectation Items

PEQ item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
6 Idealistic education	.90	.25	.15
7 Realistic education	.92	.18	.20
8 Idealistic grade	.16	.90	.16
9 Realistic grade	.23	.91	-.01
26 Idealistic job	.04	.24	.85
27 Realistic job	.32	-.10	.78
Percentage of variance	48.20	21.30	15.30

idealistic and realistic job expectation items and therefore, was named Parent Job Expectations.

A parent overall expectation scale score was the mean of the response scores from all six scale items. The scale scores range from .67 to 5.33, with higher scores indicating higher parent overall expectations. Scores for parental expectations in education, grade, and job were the means of the response scores from two education items, two grade items, and two job items, respectively. Higher scores indicate higher parent education, grade, and job expectations, respectively. The correlation matrices of the parent overall expectation items and parent education, grade, and job expectations for the child are presented in Tables Q.1 and Q.2 (see Appendix Q), respectively. A measure of internal consistency indicated that the reliability of the parent expectation items was high. Coefficient alpha was .77.

Parent Behaviour was measured by a composite of scales related to parent achievement-related behaviour: Reinforcement, Information, Education, Initiation, and Homework Demand. The Reinforcement scale has one item, "How often do you praise or congratulate your child for studying?" Included in the Information scale are three items, such as, "What topic is your child studying in arithmetic?" and in the Education scale are two items, such as, "How often do you and your child get together to look at

the dictionary?" The Initiation scale consists of three items, such as, "Whose idea was it that your child take these lessons?" The Homework Demand scale possesses one item, "How much time do you expect your child to spend on homework each day?" Higher scores indicate higher parental engagement of the particular achievement-related behaviour.

The correlation matrix of all the parent achievement-related behaviour items is presented in Table Q.3 (see Appendix Q). Tabachnick and Fidell (1989) report " a matrix that is factorable should include several sizeable correlations. If no correlation exceeds .30, use of factor analysis is questionable because there is probably nothing to factor analyze" (p. 604). Since the correlation matrix only had two correlations slightly over .30, a factor analysis was not carried out. Instead, the parent behaviour items were not pooled and analyses were done with individual items.

Child Measures

The child packet of questionnaires was administered to the children in group format in the classroom. Children were informed that the study investigated actual and perceived parental expectations of children and how it related to other aspects of themselves. Children were made aware that there were not right or wrong answers. They were also assured that their answers were confidential and were encouraged to respond honestly. Lastly, children were

informed that they would receive summaries of the central findings of the study when the study was completed. The child packet of questionnaires included the Child's Perception of Parent Expectations Questionnaire (CPPEQ), the Youth Self-Report, the Self-Perception Profile for Children, and Supplementary items. The later three questionnaires were child outcome measures. Two different orders of the packet of questionnaires (order 1 = CPPEQ, Self-Perception Profile for Children, YSR, and supplementary items; order 2 = Self-Perception Profile for Children, YSR, supplementary items, and CPPEQ) were randomly distributed to the children. T-tests were conducted to test for order effects. T-tests between order of child questionnaires and all the items on the child questionnaires (child's perception of parent expectations and behaviour, and child outcomes) revealed only one significant difference for child's perception of parent praise [CPPEQ 9, t (116) = -1.97, $p < .05$]. Children, who completed questionnaires arranged in order 2, indicated more parent praise (CPPEQ item 9, M =2.25) than children who completed questionnaires arranged in order 1 (M = 1.97). Given the minimal difference, the order of the child questionnaires did not present a problem. Descriptions of the child questionnaires follow.

Child's Perception of Parent Expectations Questionnaire (CPPEQ)

This questionnaire parallels the PEQ and provides a measure of the child's perception of his/her parents' educational expectations and behaviour. The author constructed the CPPEQ so that it could be completed by the child. Items from scales only related to parental educational expectations and behaviour were used from the PEQ. There are 20 items (See Appendix F for a complete CPPEQ questionnaire). Some items have a set of fixed choice responses, while other items are open-ended. A scoring key is supplied for the open-ended items (see Appendix G).

The CPPEQ contains six scales which assessed the domains of child's perception of parent expectations and parent behaviour. The domains, with the corresponding scales and descriptions to measure them are as follows. Again, for the sake of simplicity, abbreviated names for scales 2 through 6 are provided in brackets and will be referred to hereafter.

Child's Perception of Parents' Expectations for the Child

1) Child's Perception of Parents' Expectations for the Child: the child's perception of the expectations their parents hold for them in the academic realm

Child's Perception of Parents' Behaviour Toward the Child

2) Child's Perception of Parent Reinforcement of Academic Expectations for the Child (Reinforcement-Child): the child's perception of parents praise for their studying behaviour

3) Child's Perception of Parent Collection of Information Regarding the Child's Achievement (Information-Child): the child's perception of the amount of information parents' have about their achievement

4) Child's Perception of Parent Promotion of Education (Education-Child): child's perception of parent participation in educational activities with them

5) Child's Perception of Activities Initiated (Initiation-Child): child's perception of parent initiation of child activities

6) Child's Perception of Homework Demand (Homework Demand-Child): child's perception of how much time the parent expects them to do homework

A list of the item numbers for each scale is available in Appendix H. Inter-rater agreement for the CPPEQ open-ended items was calculated from a 10% random selection of the questionnaires. The inter-rater agreement ranged from .84 to 1.00 ($\underline{M}$ = 94.4).

Perception of Parent Expectations were measured by the Child's Perception of Parents' Expectations scale (scale 1),

which contains six items. Child's perception of parent overall expectations included the specific areas of education, grade, and job.

A factor analysis with varimax rotation was performed on the child's perception of parental expectation items, forcing the items onto three underlying factors. The three factors accounted for 69.7% of the variance. The factor loadings and percentage of variance accounted for are presented in Table 2. The order of factors and percentage of variance are similar for child and parent perception of parental expectation items. Examination of this table indicates very high loadings for child's perception of idealistic and realistic education expectation items on the first factor. This suggests that from the child's perspective idealistic and realistic education expectations were similar, and the first factor is best interpreted as Child's Perception of Parent Education Expectations, and is labelled as such. The second factor containing very high loadings from idealistic and realistic grade expectation items seems to represent Child's Perception of Parent Grade Expectations. The third factor exhibited high loadings from the idealistic and realistic job expectations and was labelled as Child's Perception of Parent Job Expectations.

The child's perception of parent overall expectation scale score was calculated by averaging the response scores from all items. The scale scores range from .67 to 5.33,

Table 2

Factor Loadings and Percentage of Variance for Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation on Child's Perception of Parental Expectation Items

CPPEQ Item and Content		Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
1	Idealistic education	.91	.20	.12
2	Realistic education	.90	.27	.00
3	Idealistic grade	.24	.87	.10
4	Realistic grade	.21	.88	-.04
18	Idealistic job	.11	-.00	.89
19	Realistic job	-.00	.05	.91
Percentage of variance		43.20	26.40	14.50

with higher scores indicating higher parent overall expectations as perceived by the child. Scores for the child's perception of parental expectations in education, grade, and job were the means of the response scores from two education items, two grade items, and two job items, respectively. Higher scores indicate higher parent education, grade, and job expectations as perceived by the child, respectively. The correlation matrices of the child's perception of parent overall expectation items and the child's perception of parent education, grade, and job expectations are provided in Tables Q.4 and Q.5 (see Appendix Q). A measure of internal consistency indicated that the reliability of the child's perception of parental expectations was high. The alpha coefficient was .71.

Perception of Parent Behaviour The child's perception of parental achievement-related behaviours was measured by a composite of scales: Reinforcement, Information, Education, Initiation, and Homework Demand. Higher scores indicate higher parental engagement in the particular achievement-related behaviour as perceived by the child.

Correlations among the items from these scales are presented in Table Q.6 (see Appendix Q). Similar to the correlation matrix of parents' perception of behaviour items, the correlation matrix of child's perception of parent behaviour items only had two correlations slightly over .30 and thereby, did not fulfil a prerequisite to

perform a factor analysis and instead were analysed individually.

Outcome Measures

The Youth Self-Report (YSR; Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1987) provides a measure of social competency, and behaviour problems (somatic complaints, delinquency, and aggression) in youths aged 11 to 18. The YSR is comprised of a Social Competency scale and Behaviour Problem subscales. The YSR is similar to the Child Behaviour Checklist (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1983), which obtains parents' reports on these two areas for their children aged 4 through 16.

The Social Competency scale consists of 17 items on which the child reported the amount and quality of participation in a variety of activities (i.e., sports, hobbies, games, organization involvements, jobs and household chores, friendships and school functioning). The child was requested to 1) list his/her activities, organization involvement and chores; 2) indicate, by comparison to same-aged children, the amount of time spent at these activities; and 3) for sporting activities and hobbies, compare his/her skill to other children. The Social Competency scale is made up of two subscales, an activities scale and a social scale.

The Behaviour Problem subscales consist of 112 items, which the child answered according to a three-step response scale: 0 (not true); 1 (somewhat or sometimes true); and

2 (very true or often true) based on his/her behaviour over the past six months. Achenbach and Edelbrock derived the Behaviour Problem subscales from factor analysis and the following three subscales were used in the study:

1) Somatic Complaints
2) Delinquent
3) Aggressive

The Somatic Complaints subscale was used to measure the child's level of somatic complaints. The Delinquent and Aggressive subscales, externalizing behaviour subscales of the YSR, measured behaviour problems in the child.

Total raw scores for each of the subscales were calculated and the corresponding T scores were marked on a graph by computer. The graph indicates the percentiles based on normal children and the corresponding T score. Raw scores at or below the 69th percentile are assigned a T score of 55 and raw scores at the 98th percentile are assigned a T score of 70. A T score of 70 or above falls in the clinical range (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1987). Achenbach & Edelbrock (1987) report test-retest reliability for the YSR after one week of .81 for nonreferred adolescents and after an eight month period .51.

The Self-Perception Profile for Children (Harter, 1985a) was devised as a multidimensional measure of children's perception of their self-esteem. The questionnaire is composed of 36 items, with each scale

possessing 6 items. (See Appendix I for a complete questionnaire). The test items are presented in a "structured alternative format", where the first half of the statement presents a characteristic common to some children and the second half of the statement presents an opposite characteristic that other children may hold. The child's task was to determine which side of the statement best described him/her and then to decide whether this statement was "sort of true for them" or "really true for them." Harter (1985b) suggests that the question format is effective in reducing socially desirable response tendencies in that a child can identify with either of two existing reference groups, where both groups are presented as equivalent in their positive appeal.

Items within each of the scales are counterbalanced such that three items reflect high competency/adequacy first, and three items reflect high competency/adequacy last. (See Appendix J for a list of the items for each scale and the direction in which they are keyed).

The scoring procedure results in a total of six scale means which define a child's self-perception profile. The scale means range from 1 to 4, with higher scores indicating higher self-esteem. (See Appendix K for a complete scoring key).

The questionnaire contains five separate scales which assesses the children's judgements of themselves in five

specific domains and a sixth scale which assesses the perception of their global self-worth. The scales and their content include:

1) Scholastic Competence: the child's perception of his/her competence/ability with regard to academic performance
2) Social Acceptance: the degree to which the child feels popular, feels that most kids like him/her, feels he/she has friends
3) Athletic Competence: the child's perception of his/her abilities in the athletic domain
4) Physical Appearance: the degree to which the child is happy with the way he/she looks, likes his/her physical features, such as height, weight, body, face, and feels that he/she is good looking
5) Behavioural Conduct: the degree to which the child likes the way he/she behaves, does the right thing, is kind to others, acts the way he/she is supposed to, and avoids getting into trouble
6) Global Self-Worth: the extent to which the child likes himself/herself as a person, is happy with the way he/she is leading his/her life, and in general is happy with the way he/she is.

The Self-Perception Profile for Children has been shown to be reliable, with Harter (1985b) reporting measures of internal consistency for the six scales across four samples.

The range of Cronbach alphas for each of the scales is presented in Appendix L. In terms of the relationships among the specific domain scales, Harter (1985b) indicated that the scales represent relatively distinct factors, but her correlations ranged from .01 to .58, suggesting some degree of overlap. The five scales bear moderate relationships to the Global Self-Worth subscale, suggesting that feelings of adequacy/competency in each of the five domains are important to one's overall sense of worth. The intercorrelations among the six scales reported by Harter (1985b) are provided in Appendix M.

Other Outcome Measures Supplementary items that parallel four PEQ items provide a measure of the child's own expectations. Supplementary items were also constructed by the author to measure the child's level of motivation and value of achievement. The supplementary items and scoring key for the open-ended items are presented in Appendix N.

The child's own expectations were gauged by four adapted expectation items from the PEQ. These items were adapted from a parental perspective to a child perspective. The child completed items about his/her own expectations regarding education and job (i.e., "What job do you want when you grow up?") Two of the items have a set of fixed choice responses and the other two items are open-ended. Inter-rater agreement for the two open-ended items was calculated from a 10% random selection of the

questionnaires. Agreement was 1.00 for both items. The child's own overall expectation score was the mean of the response scores from the four items. The scores range from 1 to 5.5, with higher scores indicating higher expectations.

Level of motivation was assessed by the item, "Would you like to improve your grades? and If yes, what are you doing to improve them?" Responses were scored as: 0 (do not like to improve grades); 1 (vague methods or no plans of improving grades); 2 (concrete methods of improving grades). Inter-rater agreement for the item was 1.00. A higher score reflects a higher level of motivation.

Value of achievement was ascertained by the item, "Do you like to do well at school? and If yes, what are the reasons?" A set of fixed choice responses is provided. Responses were grouped and scored as follows: 0 (do not like to do well at school); 1 (extrinsic reason); and 2 (intrinsic reason). A higher score indicates valuing achievement for intrinsic reasons.

Teacher Measure

The last step in the procedure involved obtaining teacher estimates of the children's level of achievement and special learning difficulties.

Teacher Rating Form

Twenty teachers rated each child that participated in the study as either working above, below, or at his/her intellectual capacity. Teachers also indicated whether the

child had any special learning difficulties (see Appendix C for the Teacher Rating form). Children with special learning difficulties were defined as those children who were unofficially identified as learning disabled and were receiving remedial help from the Special Services Department or on a modified program. Children with learning disabilities were excluded from the study since parental expectations for learning disabled children may vary from normal children. Teacher estimates of the child's level of achievement were obtained because the research policy of the school boards did not permit administration of achievement tests or access to previous achievement test scores and teacher assessments of special learning difficulties were obtained also since the school boards do not officially identify learning disabled children.

Summary

In summary, the following materials and the variables they measured were used in the present study:

Parent

1. Background Information
   a) SES
   b) Ethnicity
   c) Sex of the child

2. Parent Expectations Questionnaire (PEQ)
   a) Parents' own aspirations
   b) Parental educational expectations
   c) Parental behaviour

Child

1. Child's Perception of Parent Expectations Questionnaire (CPPEQ)
   a) Child's perception of parental educational expectations
   b) Child's perception of parental behaviour
2. Youth Self-Report
   a) Somatic Complaints
   b) Social Competency
   c) Behaviour Problems (Delinquency and Aggression)
3. The Self-Perception Profile for Children
   a) Self-esteem
4. Supplementary Items
   a) Child's own educational expectations
   b) Level of motivation
   c) Value of achievement

Teacher

1. Teacher Rating
   a) Child's level of achievement (assessment of learning disability)

The material items and the variables they measure are presented in Figure 2.

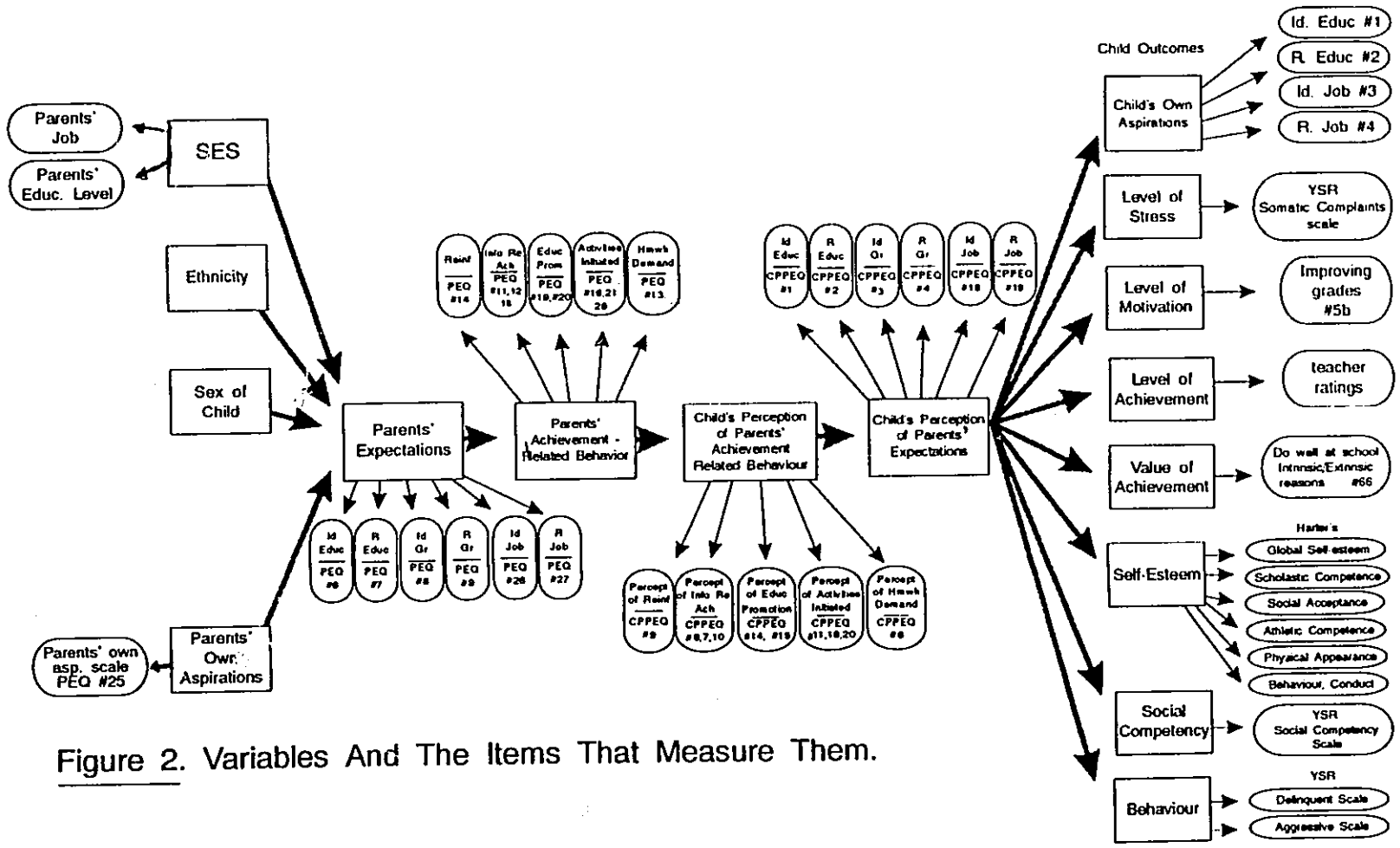

Figure 2. Variables And The Items That Measure Them.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

The results will be presented in the following order: preliminary analyses; characteristics of the data; the model of parent pressure; evaluation of the model; exploratory data analyses; and summary of the results.

Preliminary Analyses

Parent Unit Score

A parent unit score was derived from the mother and the father score for each item by either using the mean or maximum value. Responses on the PEQ by the mother and the father were similar (see Table Q.7, Appendix Q, for the correlations between the mother and the father responses). A parent unit score enabled comparisons across families.

Location

Location was examined to see whether there were differences between the two cities in all the measures in the present study (background variables, parents' own aspirations, parent expectations and behaviour, child's perception of parent expectations and behaviour, and child outcomes). T-tests revealed parents from city two had higher education expectations for their children than parents from city one [t (116) = 2.51, $p < .01$].[3] Likewise, children from city two perceived higher parent education expectations [t (116) = 2.94, $p < .01$], as well as overall expectations [t (116) = 2.85, $p < .01$], than children from

city one. Parents from city two reported more knowledge of child's last test [PEQ item 12, t (113) = 2.32, $p < .05$], more child activities [PEQ item 16, t (116) = 2.63, $p < .01$], and more education activities [PEQ item 20, t (108) = 3.21, $p < .01$] than parents from city one (see Table Q.8, Appendix Q, for the means of the above measures by city). Forty-seven measures were tested for significant differences by city. Of these measures only six significant effects were found, indicating differences between the cities were minimal.

Characteristics of the Data

Demographics of the Sample

The demographics of the sample included the background variables: SES, ethnicity, and sex of the child.

SES SES was determined by Hollingshead's Two-Factor Index of Social Status. The families were distributed across the five levels of social status with a relatively higher number in the skilled craft, clerical, sales and the semi-skilled levels (see Table 3). Even though a majority of the sample was selected from the highest SES areas in the two cities, the sample represented the skilled and semi-skilled levels.

Ethnicity Thirty-four (28.8%) families were North American, with the remaining families distributed across the Index of Ethnic Groups (see Table 4).

Table 3

Social Status Levels of the Families

Level	N	%
major business and professional	9	7.6
medium business, minor professional	17	14.3
skilled craft, clerical, sales	37	31.1
semi-skilled, machine operator	34	28.7
unskilled, menial services	17	14.3

Table 4

Ethnic Backgrounds of the Families

Background	N	%
North American	34	28.8
French Canadian	11	9.3
Mediterranean	12	10.2
West Europe	14	11.9
East Europe	6	5.1
Middle and Far East	5	4.2
mixed[a]	33	28.0

Note. [a]The mixed background family is defined as parents having different ethnic backgrounds excluding North American

Sex of Child The sex of the child was approximately evenly split between males (n = 57, 48.3%) and females (n = 61, 51.7%).

Descriptive Statistics

The means, standard deviations, and ranges for the remaining variables in the model: parents' own aspirations, parental expectations and behaviour, child's perception of parental behaviour and expectations, and the child outcomes are presented in Tables 5 to 7 (see Figure 1, p.9, for a review of the proposed model). As shown in Tables 5 and 6, parental expectations (overall, education, grade, and job) and perception of these expectations were within the top 50 or 75 percent of the range, indicating parental expectations and children's perception of these expectations are relatively high. Children scored relatively high on the self-esteem variables, whereas they scored relatively low on the somatic complaints, delinquency, and aggression variables. All the variables seem to have a wide distribution of scores, except for parents' own aspirations. A large number of parents (n = 92) reported no aspirations (no plans to change job, whether content or not with the job) than medium or high aspirations. The means and standard deviations for child outcomes by background variables (SES, ethnicity, and sex of child) are presented in Table Q.9, Appendix Q.

Table 5

Means, Standard Deviations, and Ranges for Parent's Own Aspirations, Parent Expectations, and Parent Behaviour

Parents' Own Aspiration, Parent Expectation, or Behaviour[a]	Descriptive Statistic		
	M	SD	Range[b]
Parents' Own Aspirations	1.20	.39	1-2.50
Parent Overall Exps	3.73	.87	1-5.17
Parent Educ Exps	4.49	1.13	1.75-6.00
Parent Grade Exps	3.05	1.42	0-5
Parent Job Exps	3.64	.89	1-5
Reinf of Expecations Scale			
14 praise child	2.08	.69	1-3
Info Regarding Ach Scale			
11 topic child studying	2.81	.76	1-4
12 child's last test	.96	.20	0-1
15 discuss school	2.56	1.11	1-4
Promotion of Education Scale			
19B dictionary use	1.65	.66	0-3
20 education activities	.86	.34	0-1
Activities Initiated Scale			
16 activities	2.28	.73	1-4
21 parent initiation	2.29	1.12	1-4
28 lessons	1.54	.88	1-4
Homework Demand Scale			
13B homework time	1.78	.93	0-4

Note. [a]PEQ scale and item number are given for the parent behaviours. [b]Possible ranges: Parents' Own Aspirations 1 to 3, Parent Overall Expectations .67 to 5.33, Parent Education Expectations 1 to 6, all others are the same as the actual ranges of the data.

Table 6

Means, Standard Deviations, and Ranges for Child's Perception of Parent Behaviour and Expectations

Child's Perception of Parent Behaviour[a] or Expectation	Descriptive Statistic		
	M	SD	Range[b]
Reinf of Expecations Scale			
9 praise child	2.15	.70	1-3
Info Regarding Ach Scale			
6 topic child studying	.79	.41	0-1
7 child's last test	.79	.41	0-1
10 discuss school	2.10	1.28	1-4
Promotion of Education Scale			
14 dictionary use	1.42	.73	0-3
15 education activities	.63	.49	0-1
Activities Initiated Scale			
11 activities	2.10	.91	1-4
21 parent initiation	2.13	1.34	1-4
20 lessons	1.53	.98	1-4
Homework Demand Scale			
8B homework time	1.88	.98	0-4
Parent Overall Exps	4.06	.88	.83-5.33
Parent Educ Exps	4.67	1.19	1-6
Parent Grade Exps	3.69	1.38	0-5
Parent Job Exps	3.84	1.21	1-5

Note. [a]CPPEQ scale and item number are given for perception of parent behaviours. [b]Possible ranges: Parent Overall Expectations .67 to 5.33, all others are the same as the actual ranges of the data.

Table 7

Means, Standard Deviations, and Ranges for Child Outcomes

Child Outcome	Descriptive Statistics		
	M	SD	Range[a]
Child's own expectations			
Education	4.65	1.27	1-6
Job	4.08	1.06	1-5
Somatic Complaints[b]	58.60	6.07	55-89
Motivation	.96	.87	0-2
Achievement	2.01	.58	1-3
Value of Achievement	1.26	.44	1-2
Self-Esteem			
Global	3.09	.61	1-4
Scholastic	3.03	.70	1-4
Social	3.00	.76	1-4
Athletic	2.81	.74	1-4
Physical	2.65	.68	1-4
Behaviour	2.88	.69	1.3-4.0
Social Competency	52.18	10.12	25-78
Behaviour			
Delinquency[b]	58.24	6.62	55-94
Aggression[b]	58.98	7.69	55-91

Note. [a]Possible ranges: Behaviour Self-Esteem 1 to 4, Somatic Complaints, Delinquency, and Behaviour 55 to 100, all others are the same as the actual ranges of the data. [b]T scores are used for Somatic Complaints, Delinquency, and Behaviour. Raw scores at or below the 69th percentile are assigned a T score of 55 and raw scores at the 98th percentile are assigned a T score of 70. A T score of 70 or above falls in the clinical range.

Relations Within the Model

In order to prepare for model testing, analyses were conducted to examine the relations within the model.

Background and Parent Expectations for the Child

Analyses were conducted to clarify the relations between the background variables (SES, ethnicity, sex of the child) and the parental expectations for the child. Significant positive correlations were found between SES and several parental expectations for the child: overall (r = .29, p < .01); education (r = .28, p < .01); and grade (r = .32, p < .01), such that the higher the SES, the higher the parental expectations. No significant correlation was found between SES and parental job expectations (r = -.02). One-Way ANOVAs with ethnicity (7 categories) as the independent variables and parental expectations as the dependent variables, including overall, education, grade, and job expectations, were performed. The effect of Ethnicity on Parental Education Expectations was significant (F [6, 108] = 2.84, p < .01; see Table Q.10, Appendix Q, for the ANOVA summary table and the means). However, Tukey pairwise comparisons revealed no significant differences in parental expectations between ethnic groups. Parent overall expectations were higher for daughters (M = 3.89) than sons [M = 3.33; t (116) = 2.04, p < .05]. Similarly, parent grade expectations were higher for daughters (M = 3.56) than sons [M = 2.75; t (116) = 2.27, p < .05].

Parents' Own Aspirations and Expectations for the Child

The relation between parents' own aspirations and parental expectations for their child was examined. Correlations between parents' own aspirations and parent expectations, including overall, education, grade, and job expectations, were not significant. The correlations ranged from r = -.02 to .16.

Parent Expectations and Parent Behaviour The correlations between parent expectations and behaviours can be found in Table 8. Inspection of the table indicated significant correlations between parent overall expectations and education activities (r = .30, p < .01), lessons (r = .31, p < .01), and homework time (r = .31, p < .01), such that as parent overall expectations increased, the number of parent education activities with the child, the number of lessons the child was enrolled in, and the amount of time parents required children to do homework, increased. Similarly, parent education expectations were significantly correlated with education activities (r = .34, p < .01), lessons (r = .30, p < .01), and homework demand (r = .36, p < .01) and parent grade expectations were significantly correlated with education activities (r = .34, p < .01), lessons (r = .30, p < .01), and homework demand (r = .36, p < .01).

Table 8

Correlations between Parent Expectations and Behaviour

	Parent Expectations			
Parent Behaviour	Overall	Education	Grade	Job
Reinf of Expectations Scale				
14 praise child	.16	.12	.09	.16
Info Regarding Ach Scale				
11 topic child studying	-.00	.01	-.01	-.01
12 child's last test	-.05	-.07	-.06	.03
15 discuss school	.03	.05	.07	-.10
Promotion of Education Scale				
19B dictionary use	.14	.13	.17	-.03
20 education activities	.30**	.34**	.24*	.07
Activities Initiated Scale				
16 activities	-.03	.12	-.11	-.05
21 parent initiation	-.01	.01	.01	-.05
28 lessons	.31**	.30**	.22*	.17
Homework Demand Scale				
13B homework time	.31**	.36**	.20*	.14

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Parent Behaviour and Child's Perception of Parent Behaviour The relation of parent behaviour to child's perception of parent behaviour was examined (the correlation coefficients of items measuring parent and child perception of parent behaviour are presented in Table Q.11, Appendix Q). The correlations were only moderate and significant or nonsignificant between items comprising parent and child perception of parent behaviour. The highest moderate significant correlations were education activities, dictionary use, and homework time (ranging from r = .34 to .37).

Child's Perception of Parental Behaviour and Expectations The correlations between child's perception of parent behaviours and expectations can be found in Table 9. The only significant correlations found were between child's perception of parent involvement in education activities with the child (CPPEQ item 15) and parent overall (r = .21, p < .05) and education (r = .30, p < .01) expectations. As a child's perception of parent involvement in education activities increased, a child's perception of parent overall and grade expectations increased. All other correlations were nonsignificant.

Comparison of Parent Expectations and Child's Perception of Parent Expectations Parent expectations and child's perceptions of parent expectations were compared for similarities and differences. Significant correlations were

Table 9

Correlations between Child's Perception of Parent Behaviour and Expectations

Child's Perception of Parent Behaviour	Child's Perception of Parent Expectations			
	Overall	Education	Grade	Job
Reinf of Expectations Scale				
9 praise child	.09	.05	.15	-.03
Info Regarding Ach Scale				
6 topic child studying	.04	.06	.01	.01
7 child's last test	.01	.01	.02	-.00
10 discuss school	.13	.13	.12	.01
Promotion of Education Scale				
14 dictionary use	.08	.09	.08	-.00
15 education activities	.21*	.30**	.12	.02
Activities Initiated Scale				
11 activities	-.06	-.05	-.00	-.07
21 parent initiation	-.04	-.07	-.00	-.01
20 lessons	.17	.08	.12	.16
Homework Demand Scale				
8B homework time	.15	.14	.16	-.00

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

found between parent and child perceptions of parent expectation items, especially between corresponding parent and child items (see Table Q.12, Appendix Q, for correlation coefficients). Paired comparison t-tests comparing parental expectations from a parent and a child perception also revealed significant differences in parent overall expectations [t (117) = 4.33, $p < .0001$] and in parent grade expectations [t (117) = 4.61, $p < .0001$]. Parent overall and grade expectations were seen as higher by children (M = 4.06 and M = 3.69, respectively) than parents (M = 3.73 and M = 3.05, respectively).

Comparison of Parent Expectations and Child's Own Expectations Parent expectations and the child's own expectations were compared, specifically education and job expectations. T-tests revealed no significant differences between parent education expectations for the child and the child's own education expectations. However, children had higher job expectations for themselves (M = 4.09) than their parents had for them [M = 3.65; t (114) = 3.87, $p < .0001$]. Lists of the jobs parents wanted their children to have, jobs children wanted when they grew up, and examples of gender differences in jobs children wanted can be found in Tables Q.13, Q.14, and Q.15, Appendix Q. Children even had higher job expectations for themselves than they perceived their parents to have for them [M = 3.85; t (115) = 2.12, $p < .05$].

Child's Perception of Parent Expectations and Child Outcomes A specific focus of the study was on the prediction of child outcomes. The relation between child's perception of parent expectations and child outcomes was examined. The correlation matrix of child's perception of parent expectations and child outcomes is presented in Table 10. The results indicated significant correlations between child's perception of parent overall expectations and achievement, scholastic self-esteem, social self-esteem, and social competency, such that as a child's perception of parent overall expectations increased, a child's level of achievement, scholastic and social self-esteem, and social competency increased.

In order to fully clarify the relation between child's perception of parent expectations and child outcomes, the number of child outcomes was reduced by conducting a factor analysis (the correlation matrix for all child outcomes can be found in Table Q.16, Appendix Q). It is evident from Table 7 that the child outcomes have different scale ranges. Since these varying scale ranges can complicate the factor analysis when the outcomes are grouped together, all outcomes were subjected to z score transformations. Therefore, the child outcome results are based upon the transformed scores. In trying to find the simplest structure for a factor analysis, the child outcomes were forced onto factors, starting with two factors, and

Table 10

Correlations between Child's Perception of Parent Expectations and Child Outcomes

	Child's Perception of Parent Expectations			
Child Outcome	Overall	Education	Grade	Job
Child's own expectations				
Education	.60**	.76**	.38**	.31
Job	.30**	.14	.03	.45**
Somatic complaints	-.08	-.09	-.15	.09
Motivation	-.10	-.07	.01	-.15
Achievement	.21*	.22	.18	.04
Value of achievement	.08	.07	.12	-.03
Self-esteem				
Global	.11	.21*	.05	-.03
Scholastic	.34**	.33**	.28**	.10
Social	.34**	.33**	.20*	.20*
Athletic	.20	.22*	.08	.12
Physical	.12	.24**	.06	-.03
Behaviour	.04	.20*	.00	-.11
Social competency	.21*	.29**	.14	.02
Behaviour				
Delinquency	-.06	-.15	-.09	.13
Aggression	.03	-.09	.02	.13

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

increasing by one until a meaningful structure pattern showed. A meaningful structure pattern emerged with three factors. The outcomes were rotated using the varimax technique. The three factors accounted for 47.4% of the variance. The factor loadings and percentages of variance accounted for are presented in Table 11. Inspection of the pattern of item loadings for the first factor shows high loadings for global, social, athletic, and physical self-esteem on the first factor. The first factor clearly can be interpreted as Self-Esteem. The second factor exhibited high loadings from a different group of child outcomes, that of somatic complaints, delinquency, aggression, and behaviour self-esteem. This factor can be labelled Clinical Symptoms. The third factor captured child's educational expectations, level of motivation, and level of achievement and seems to represent School Interest. The correlations between the self-esteem, clinical symptoms, and school interest factors are presented in Table Q.17, Appendix Q. Measures of internal consistency were calculated for the three factors. The coefficient alpha was high (alpha = .72) for the self-esteem factor; high (alpha = .80) for the clinical symptoms factor; and moderate (alpha = .44) for the school interest factor.

The matrix of relations between perception of parent expectations and the three factors of child outcomes was reduced by using the global measure of child's perception of

Table 11

Factor Loadings and Percentage of Variance for Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation on Child Outcomes

Child Outcome	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Child's own expectations			
Education	.19	-.07	.71
Job	.21	.06	.24
Somatic Complaints	.03	.60	-.07
Motivation	-.01	-.01	-.48
Achievement	-.04	-.26	.58
Value of Achievement	-.06	-.08	.29
Self-Esteem			
Global	.74	-.30	.06
Scholastic	.40	-.11	.66
Social	.71	.11	.02
Athletic	.72	.08	.08
Physical	.74	-.14	.08
Behaviour	.25	-.63	.35
Social Competency	.42	.03	.46
Behaviour			
Delinquency	.00	.84	-.17
Aggression	.00	.88	.08
Percentage of Variance	24.00	14.60	8.70

overall expectations. Once this was complete, the relation between child's perception of parent expectations and child outcomes was reexamined. The correlation matrix of child's perception of parent expectations and child self-esteem, clinical symptoms and school interest is presented in Table 12. The results indicated significant correlations between child's perception of parent overall expectations and self-esteem and school interest but not the clinical symptoms factor.

Model of Parent Pressure

Based on descriptive statistics, deletions were made to the proposed model of parent pressure in order to test the goodness of fit of the model. The ethnicity variable was excluded from the model because path analysis is generally not amenable to the use of categorical variables.[4] Parents' Own Aspirations, Parent Behaviour, and Child's Perception of Parent Behaviour were excluded because the measurement of these constructs were weak as indicated by small correlations with other variables in the model and by small intercorrelations for the behaviour and perception of behaviour items. The eight child outcomes were reduced by factor analysis to three child outcome factors of self-esteem, clinical symptoms, and school interest. The new model of parental pressure was proposed that traces the influences of SES and sex of the child on parental expectations, to the perception of these expectations, and

Table 12

Correlations between Child's Perception of Parent Overall Expectations and Self-Esteem, Clinical Symptoms, and School Interest

	Perception of Parent Overall Expectations
Self-Esteem	.26**
Clinical Symptoms	-.05
School Interest	.44**

** $p < .01$.

through to the influence of these perceptions on the child's psychological functioning. The child's psychological functioning includes the three child outcome factors: self-esteem, clinical symptoms, and school interest. The correlation matrix of the variables in the proposed model (SES, sex of the child, parental expectations, perception of parental expectations, and self-esteem, clinical symptoms, and school interest as the child outcomes) are presented in Table 13. Because Child's Perception of Parent Behaviours was excluded from the model it was also excluded from the definition of parental pressure used in the present study. Parental pressure was redefined as a child's perception of parental expectations for a high level of academic achievement. The model was now ready to be tested (see Figure 3).

Evaluation of the Model

As shown in Figure 3, the proposed model of parent pressure identifies three child outcome variables which are explained by the same causal sequence. The goodness of fit for this overall model was tested using a regression approach to path analysis which requires separate statistical tests for each outcome: self-esteem, clinical symptoms, and school interest. The results of each test are described below.

Path analyses revealed that the model fit the data when self-esteem is used as the outcome variable, but not when

Table 13

Correlation Matrix of the Model Variables: SES, Sex of Child, Parent Expectations, Perception of Expectations, Self-Esteem, Clinical Symptoms, and School Interest Factors

Variable	SES	Sex	Par Exps	Perc of Exps	S Esteem	Cl Symp	Sch Int
SES	-	.01	.29**	.21*	.09	-.09	.25**
Sex		-	.16	.04	-.13	-.08	.17
Parent Exps			-	.52***	.20*	-.31***	.48***
Percept of Parent Exps				-	.25***	-.04	.43***
Self-Esteem					-	-.18*	.23**
Clinical Symptoms						-	.36***
School Interest							-

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

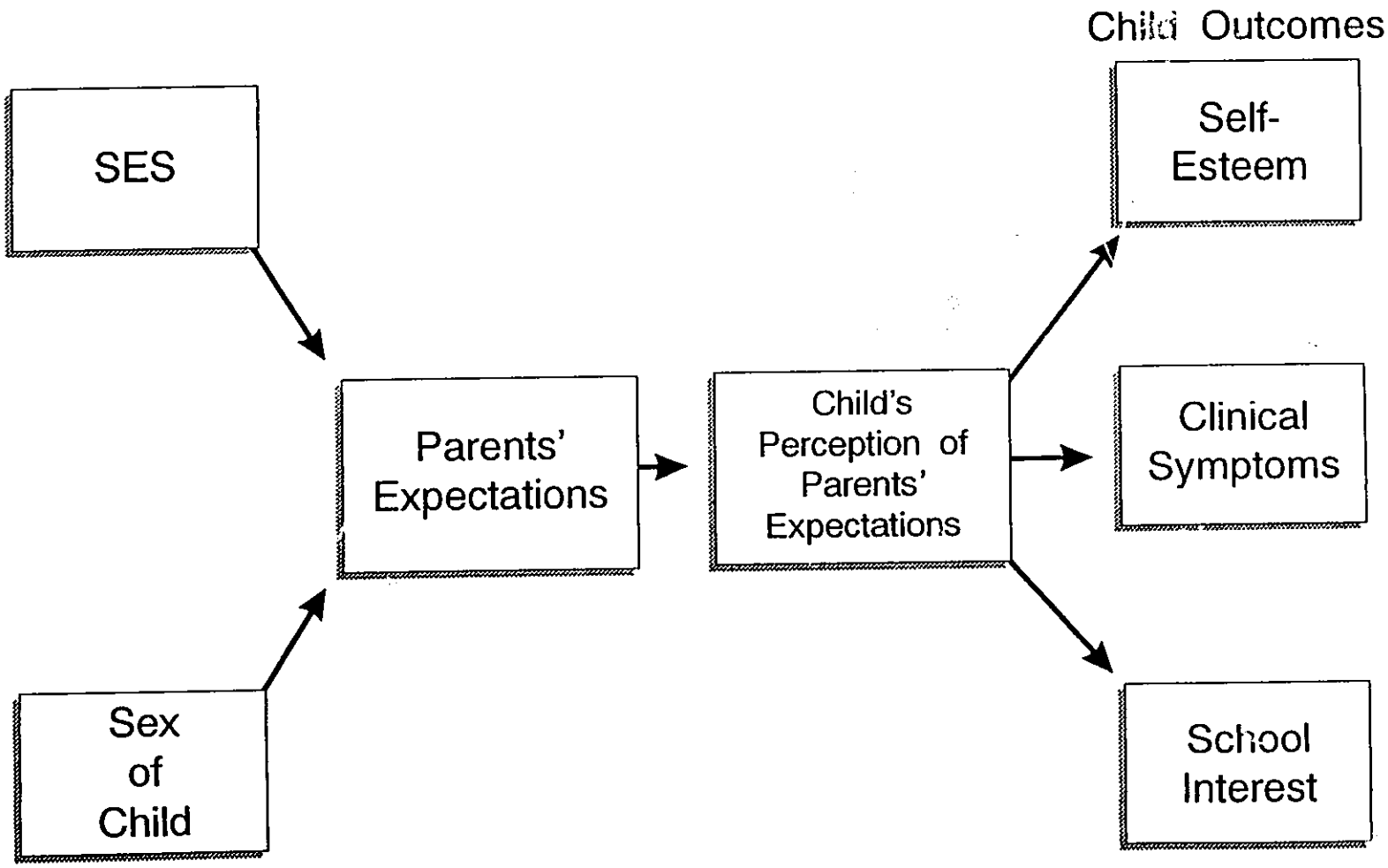

Figure 3. Tested Model of Parent Pressure.

clinical symptoms or school interest are used as outcomes (see Table 14, for a summary of the statistics for all the path analyses).[5] The Self-Esteem Model is presented in Figure 4.

As shown in Figure 4, no significant correlation was found between SES and Sex of Child ($r = .01$). A statistically significant path from SES (1) to Parent Expectations (3) ($p_1 = .29$, $p < .001$) suggests that as SES increased, parental expectations increased. A path from Sex of Child (2) to Parent Expectations (3) approached significance ($p_2 = .16$, $p < .08$) tentatively suggesting that the sex of the child affected parental expectations.[6] Parental expectations were higher for daughters than sons. A statistically significant path was identified between Parent Expectations (3) and Child's Perception of Parent Expectations (4) ($p_3 = .52$, $p < .001$), indicating a positive relation between parent expectations and child's perception of their parent expectations. There was a moderate positive relation between Child's Perception of Parent Expectations (4) and Self-Esteem factor (5) ($p_4 = .25$, $p < .01$). This path represents the direct effect of child's perception of parent expectations on self-esteem. In other words, as a child's perception of parent expectations increased, a child's self-esteem increased.

Table 14

Summary of the Statistics for Path Analyses:

Testing the Parent Pressure Models

Model	Q	x^2	df	N	p
Self-Esteem	.9570957	4.78	5	114	<.10
Clinical Symptoms	.8871473	13.05	5	114	>.10
School Interest	.8601533	16.42	5	114	>.10
Revised Model[a]					
School Interest	.9697624	3.38	5	114	<.10
Clinical Symptoms	1.0000000	0	5	114	<.10

Note. [a]The revised models include a link between parent expectations and child's school interest and clinical symptoms.

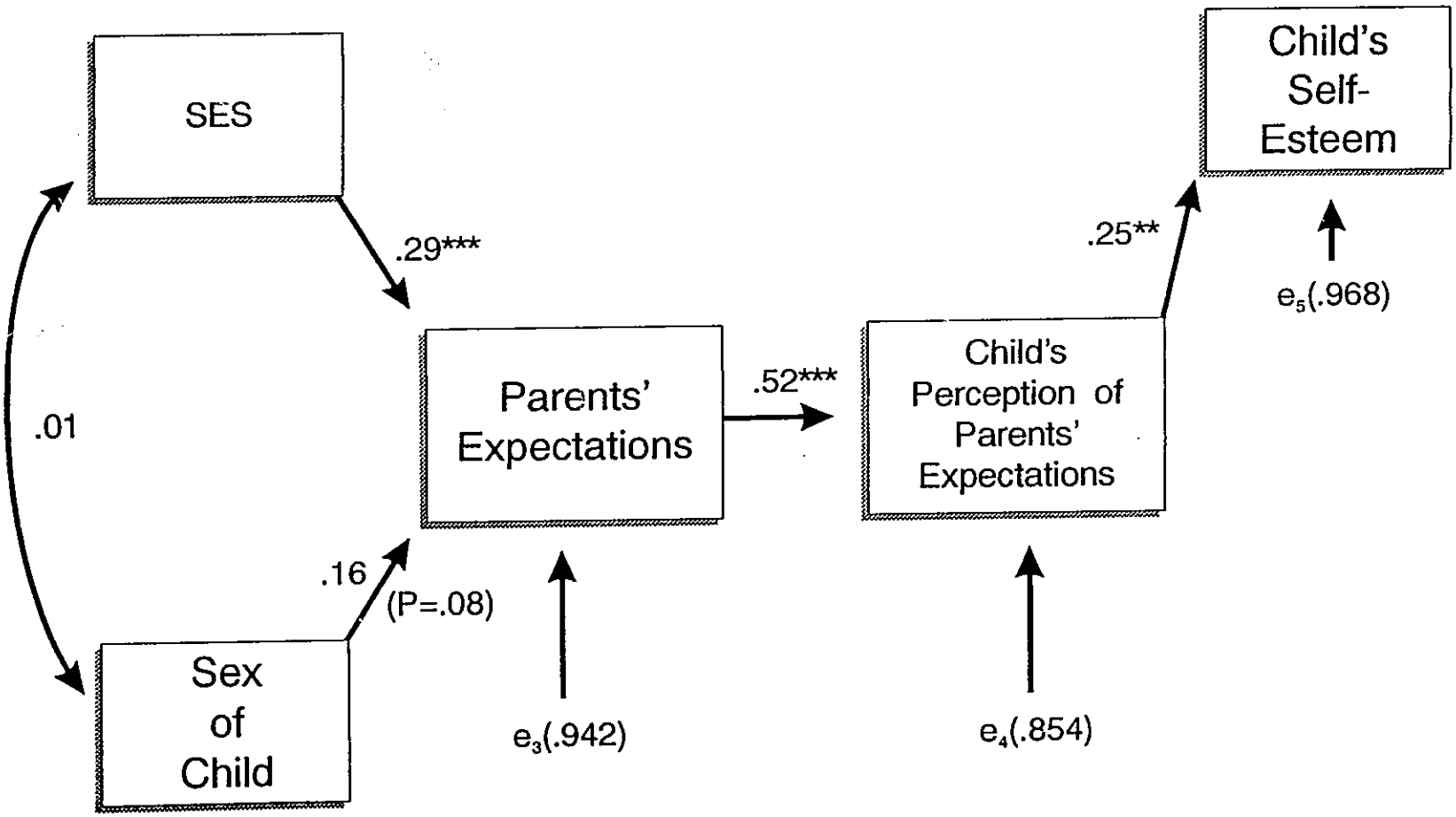

Figure 4. Self-Esteem Model.

Exploratory Analyses

Exploratory analyses were carried out on the School Interest and Clinical Symptoms Models. Differences between observed and reproduced correlations were examined to reveal potential misspecifications of the two models. Large residuals were found for the correlation between Parent Expectations and School Interest and between Parent Expectations and Clinical Symptoms, suggesting that direct causal paths from parent expectations to these two outcomes would improve the fit of the models. The models were revised by adding a path between Parent Expectations and School Interest in one model and adding a path between Parent Expectations and Clinical Symptoms in the other model. These revised models were evaluated in further path analyses.

Path analyses revealed that the revised models with school interest and clinical symptoms as outcome variables fit the data. The revised model with clinical symptoms as the outcome variable perfectly fit the data. The School Interest and Clinical Symptoms Models are presented in Figures 5 and 6.

In the test of the revised School Interest Model, paths from SES to Parent Expectations and Sex of Child to Parent Expectations and from Parent Expectations to Child's Perception of Parent Expectations remained the same as the ones reported for the Self-Esteem Model. Statistically

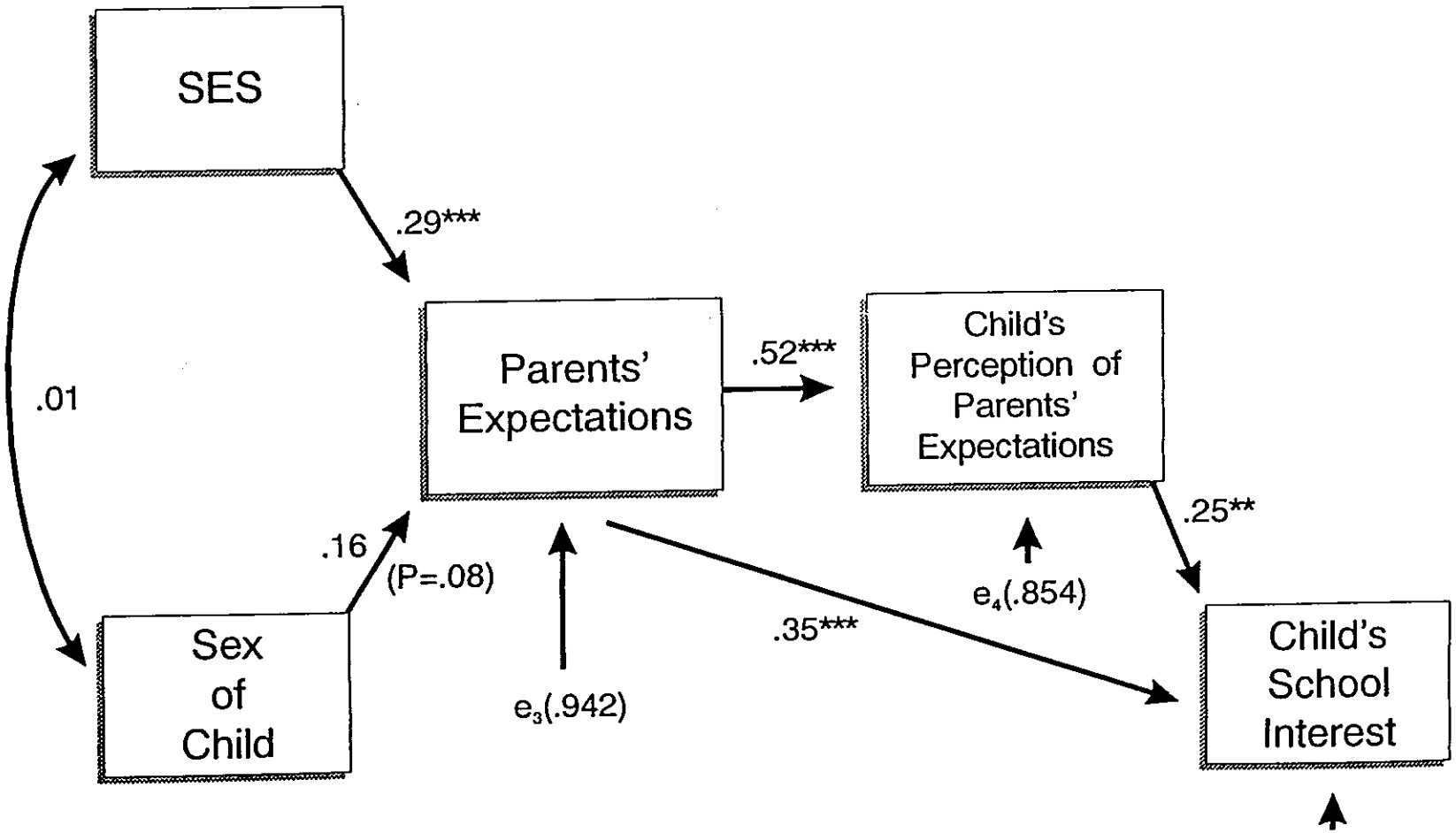

Figure 5. School Interest Model.

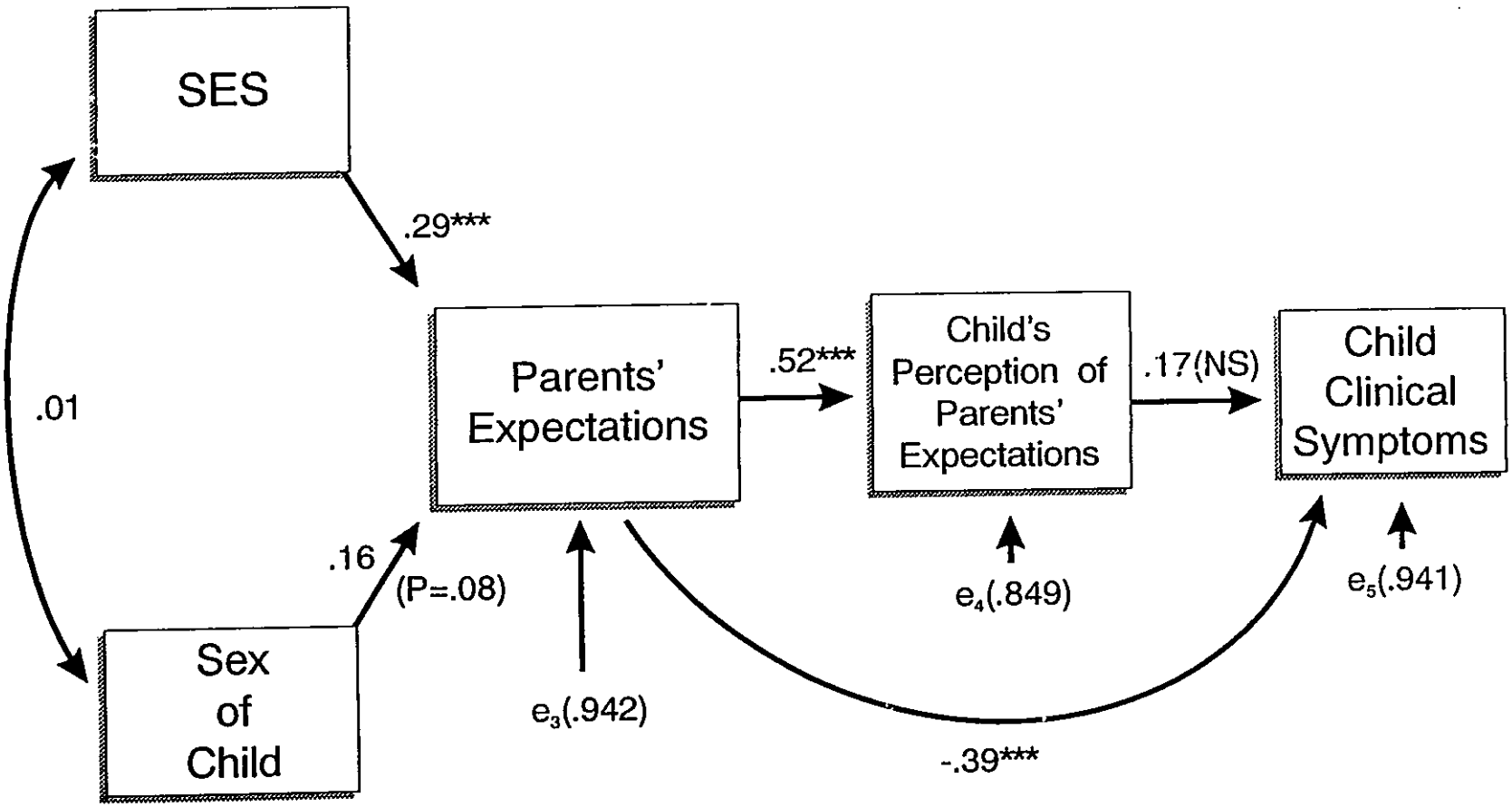

Figure 6. Clinical Symptoms Model.

significant paths from Parent Expectations (3) to School Interest (5) ($p_5 = .35$, $p < .001$) and from Child's Perception of Parent Expectations (4) to School Interest (5) ($p_4 = .25$, $p < .01$) suggest that both the parent's and child's perceptions of parent expectations affected the child's school interest. In other words, as both a child's and the parents' perceptions of parent expectations increased, a child's school interest increased.

As with the revised School Interest Model, the paths for the revised Clinical Symptoms Model from SES to Parent Expectations and Sex of Child to Parent Expectations and from Parent Expectations to Child's Perception of Parent Expectations remained the same as the ones reported for the Self-Esteem Model. A statistically significant path from Parent Expectations (3) to Clinical Symptoms (5) ($p_5 = -.39$, $p < .001$) suggests that the parent expectations affected the child's clinical symptoms. In other words, as the parents' expectations increased, a child's clinical symptoms decreased. A nonsignificant path leading from Child's Perception of Parent Expectations (4) to Clinical Symptoms (5) ($p_4 = -.04$, $p < .11$) suggest that the child's perception of these expectations, however, did not exert an influence on the child's clinical symptoms.

The Clinical Symptoms Model was the only model where no significant path was found between Child's Perception of Parent Expectations and a child outcome variable, and

therefore, this was explored further. A regression analysis was done to explore curvilinear relations. Path analysis can only analyse linear relations. A regression analysis was carried out with the Clinical Symptoms score as the criterion variable and the Perception of Expectations score and the Perception of Expectations score squared as the predictor variables. The linear regression was nonsignificant, while the quadratic regression was significant [F (1, 115) = 4.997, $p < .05$; see Table 15].[7] The higher the parent expectations were perceived to be by the child, the more clinical symptoms were manifested. However, at the highest level the symptoms decreased somewhat. Clinical symptoms include somatic complaints, behaviour self-esteem, delinquency, and aggression. The regression of Clinical Symptoms on Child's Perception of Parent Expectations was plotted (see Figure 7).[8] The plot illustrates a curvilinear relation between perceived parent expectations and clinical symptoms.

In order to clarify which children are most susceptible to clinical symptoms, the role of level of achievement was investigated. It was thought that children who have a difficult time meeting perceived parent expectations may be more likely to experience clinical symptoms than children who do not have a difficult time meeting perceived parent expectations. Analyses were conducted to examine the role of level of achievement with respect to perception of parent

Table 15

Summary of Regression Analysis: Prediction of Clinical Symptoms

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F(1, 115)
Linear	1 .17	1	.17	< 1
Quadratic	3.03	1	3.03	4.997
Error	69.85	115	.61	

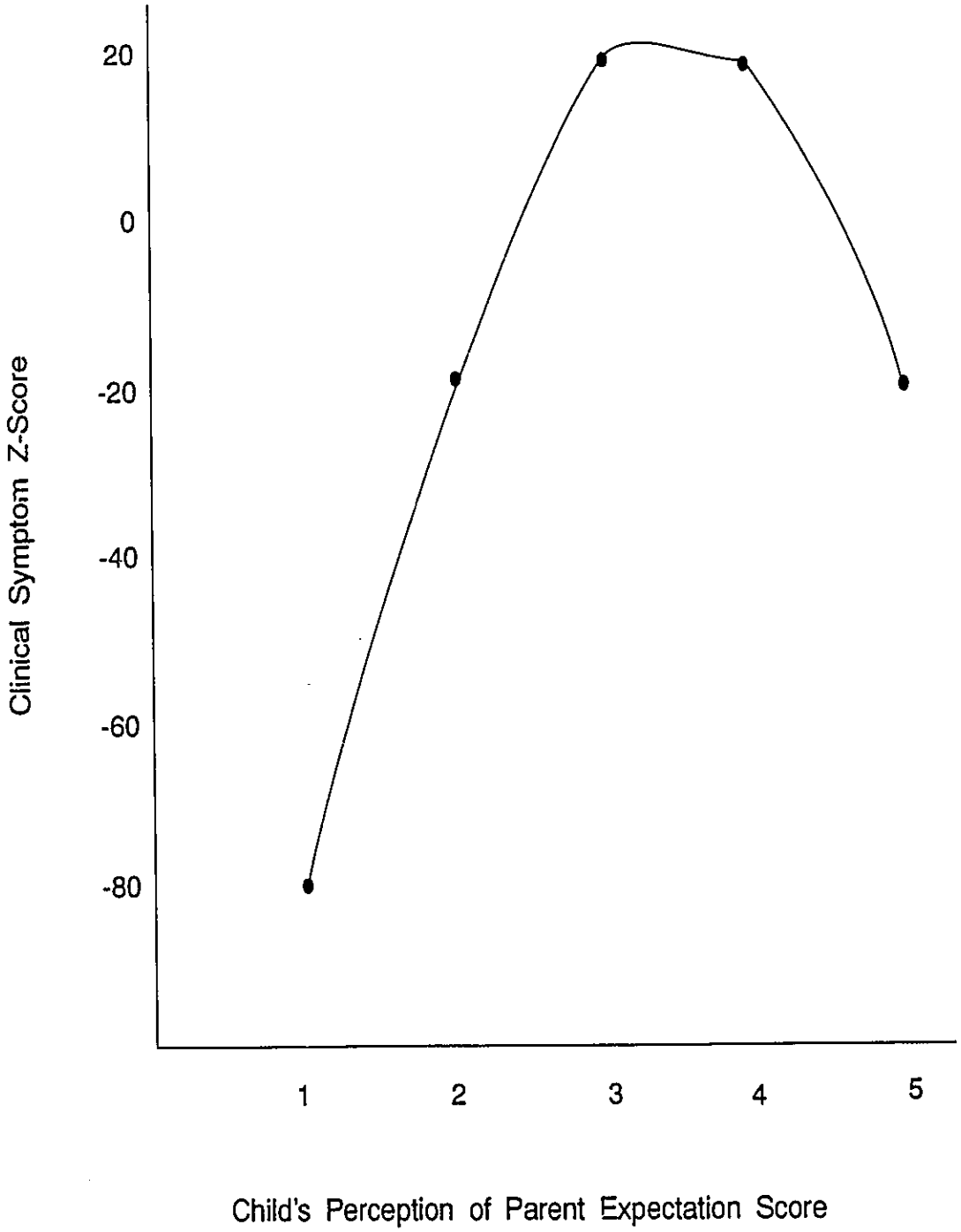

Figure 7. Plot of Regression Equation of Clinical Symptoms on Child's Perception of Parent Expectations.

expectations and clinical symptoms. Children at risk for developing clinical symptoms (defined as having a perception of moderately high parent expectations, a score of three or four) were selected and separated into low, moderate, and high achievers (teacher ratings of one, two, and three) and compared for clinical symptoms. A One-Way ANOVA with Level of Achievement on Clinical Symptoms was significant [F (2, 77) = 7.71, p < .001, see Table Q.18, Appendix Q, for the ANOVA summary table]. Tukey pairwise comparisons revealed that children with perceptions of moderately high parent expectations and low achievement had a significantly higher clinical symptom score (M = .68) than children with moderate achievement (M = -.14) and high achievement (M = -.21). The clinical symptoms factor is based on z scores.

Summary of Results

It was demonstrated that the Parent Pressure Model fit the data when self-esteem is used as the child outcome variable, but not when clinical symptoms or school interest are used as outcome variables. The Self-Esteem Model is a basic chain from SES and sex of child to parent expectations, to perception of expectations, to subsequent child self-esteem. As SES increased, parental expectations increased. The sex of the child also affected parental expectations. Parental expectations were higher for daughters than sons. A positive relation was identified between parent expectations and child's perception of these

expectations. As a child's perception of parent expectations increased, a child's self-esteem increased.

The models with school interest and clinical symptoms as outcome variables were revised by adding a path between parent expectations and the outcome variable. The revised School Interest and Clinical Symptoms Models fit the data. The test of the revised School Interest Model revealed that the basic chain from SES and sex of child to parent expectations, to perception of expectations, remained the same. Parent expectations were found to influence the child's school interest. As the parents' expectations increased, a child's school interest increased. Perceptions of parent expectations affected child school interest. As a child's perception of parent expectations increased, a child's school interest increased.

The test of the revised Clinical Symptoms Model revealed that the basic chain from SES and sex of child to parent expectations, to perception of expectations, remained the same. Parent expectations were found to influence the child's clinical symptoms. As the parents' expectations increased, a child's clinical symptoms decreased. There was a curvilinear relation between child's perception of parent expectations and clinical symptoms. The higher the parent expectations were perceived to be by the child, the more clinical symptoms (somatic complaints, behaviour self-esteem problems, delinquency, and aggression) were manifested.

However, at the highest level the symptoms decreased somewhat.

Children with perceptions of moderately high parental expectations and low achievement had significantly more clinical symptoms than children with moderate and high achievement.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The main goal of the present study was to determine the psychological effects on children of parental pressure to achieve. Children's responses to parental pressure were examined within the framework of a model. Parental pressure was defined as a child's perception of parent expectations for a high level of academic achievement. A model of parent pressure was tested which traced the influences on parental expectations, through to the influence of the perception of these expectations on the child's psychological functioning. The model of parent pressure identified three child outcome variables which were explained by the same causal sequence. The child outcomes included self-esteem, school interest, and clinical symptoms.

The discussion chapter is organized as follows: main research findings; limitations of the study; implications of the study; and future research directions.

Main Research Findings

Tested Models of Parental Pressure

The results represented by the Parent Pressure-Self-Esteem Model (Figure 4) and the revised Parent Pressure-School Interest and Clinical Symptoms Models (see Figures 5 and 6) supported a basic chain from SES and sex of child to parent expectations, to perception of expectations, to the subsequent child outcome. As a child's perception of parent

expectations increased, a child's self-esteem increased. The revised models included a link between parent expectations and the child's school interest and clinical symptoms. As parent expectations and perception of parent expectations increased, a child's school interest increased. Parent expectations were found to influence the child's clinical symptoms. As parent expectations increased, a child's clinical symptoms decreased. There was a curvilinear relation between child's perception of parent expectations and clinical symptoms. The higher the parent expectations were perceived to be by the child, the more clinical symptoms were manifested. However, at the highest level the symptoms decreased somewhat.

These models are consistent with the models proposed by Seginer (1983) and Marjoribanks (1986). Seginer's model focuses on the antecedents of parents' expectations, and the factors mediating between these expectations and the child's academic achievement. Marjoribanks' model includes antecedents of parental expectations, and child's perception of parental expectations as a mediator between parental expectations and child aspirations. The proposed models of parent pressure in this study are consistent with the general contention, found in Seginer's and Marjoribanks' models, that parental expectations have an effect on children.

The child outcome in Seginer's model is child achievement and the child outcome in Marjoribanks' model is child aspirations. The proposed models extended Seginer's and Marjoribanks' models by expanding the parents' expectations-child outcome link to include other child outcomes. The proposed models included three child outcomes: self-esteem, clinical symptoms, and school interest. The child outcomes of achievement and aspirations fell onto the school interest factor. The proposed models provide a more comprehensive understanding of the effect of parent expectations on the child in that they include extra child outcomes.

Specific Relations Within the Models

The proposed models delineate specific relations among the variables (background factors, parent expectations, perception of expectations and child outcomes). These specific relations will be discussed below.

Background and Parent Expectations The present study corroborates previous research, which has shown that as SES increases, parental expectations increase (Bronfenbrenner, 1958; Brook et al., 1979; Cloward & Jones, 1963; Hyman, 1953; Marjoribanks, 1986; and Wylie & Hutchin, 1967). Thus the socioeconomic context within which parents and children live is important in understanding the parents' influence on the child.

The sex of the child was also found to affect parental expectations. An unexpected finding was that parental expectations were higher for daughters than sons. This contradicts much of the research examining parental expectations and sex of child (Brook et. al., 1974; Intons-Peterson, 1985; Wylie & Hutchins, 1967). The reason for the discrepancy may be due to the use of a sample from grades six through eight in the present study, in contrast to other grades. During grades six through eight, girls seem to be more interested in school than boys and this may have been reflected in parental expectations.

Parent Expectations and Child's Perception of Expectations Parent expectations for their child ranged from "robbing banks" to being "a medical doctor and if not, a computer scientist, engineer, teacher, or similar nondemanding job". Children's perceptions of parent expectations also ranged from "a waitress" to "a doctor, not a blue collar worker". In general, children's perception of their parents' expectations mapped their parents' expectations. However, parents' overall expectations and parents' grade expectations were seen as substantially higher by children than parents. This underscores the point that reality is in the eyes of the beholder.

There may indeed be actual differences in parent expectations and children's perceptions of these expectations. This is consistent with Gecas and Schwalbe's

(1986) finding. Although measuring perception of behaviour, they found only a modest correspondence between parents' reports of their behaviour and children's perception of this behaviour. The differences in perception of expectations also may be due to artifact or methodological limitations. The measurement of expectations was through self-report. Self-report data is susceptible to social desirability tendencies. Perhaps parents actually had higher expectations for their children than reported but were reluctant to express their true expectations for fear of being viewed negatively. Alternatively, children at the age when they can be dramatic, may have exaggerated their parents' expectations.

Differences were found between parent expectations for the child and the child's own expectations. Surprisingly, children had higher job expectations for themselves than their parents had for them. Children had job expectations such as doctor, dentist, veterinarian, lawyer or "some job that is hard to spell". Not only did they have high job expectations, but they also had specific job expectations, such as neurologist, pediatric dentist, real estate lawyer, or environmental engineer. Some children also had job expectations that included fame, with males wanting to be sports superstars or heavy metal artists and females wanting to be actresses or singers. Although some parents had high job expectations for their child such as Prime Minister,

millionaire, or financial marketeer, most had nonspecialized, moderate, and nonfamous job expectations. The trend of pushing children to achieve certainly seems to have resulted in children wishing to achieve. Not all children will have the capabilities to perform the jobs to which they aspire. Perhaps the next phase of parenting for these parents may be dealing with children who do not fulfill their expectations.

Child Self-Esteem Contrary to prior prediction, there was a positive relation between child's perception of expectations and child self-esteem. In other words, as a child's perception of parent expectations increased, a child's self-esteem increased.

Previous studies report a negative relation between perception of expectations and self-esteem (Eskilson et al., 1986; Werner & Strother, 1987) rather than a positive relation that was found in this study. However, the study by Werner and Strother (1987) was a case study. The study by Eskilson et al. (1986) used a broader measure of parental pressure, and perhaps pressure across a range of activities is more likely to have a negative impact on self-esteem than is pressure specifically in the area of academic achievement. This may be an important topic for future investigation. Certainly in the present study there was a group of children for whom parent pressure had a negative effect on self-esteem, and it is possible that the children

in Eskilson et al.'s (1986) study exhibited similar characteristics to those in this group. It is recommended future research explore this area.

Child School Interest Contrary to prediction, parent expectations and a child's perception of parent expectations were positively related to a child's school interest. School interest included child's own educational expectations, motivation, and achievement. Parent expectations were found to have a direct influence on the child's school interest. This new path makes considerable sense from a child outcome perspective. It could be that the self-fulfilling prophecy is operating to increase a child's school interest. Just as teacher expectations have been shown to influence child behaviour (Cooper, 1979; Rosenthal, 1974), parent expectations may also influence child behaviour. Parent expectations for their child may exert a subtle influence on the child to act in the expected way. For example, parents whose body gestures, facial expressions, and eye contact convey high expectations for school interest may have children meeting these expectations compared to parents whose body gestures, facial expressions, and eye contact do not convey this message.

As a child's perception of parent expectations increased, a child's school interest increased. This finding is contrary to popular literature (Brodsky-Chenfeld, 1985; Elkind, 1986b, 1987b; Langway et al., 1983). These

reports, however, are not based on empirical findings. It is probable that if the child perceives high parent expectations to achieve, the child concentrates on achievement related activities, and consequently, this is reflected in his/her own high education expectations, motivation, and achievement. Some of the children in the present study were extremely concerned with academic achievement, stating for example, "I worry about getting all my homework done" and "I am always getting 100% or in the 90%, but I would like to get perfect all the time so I am studying harder and listening better". However, such an emphasis on academic achievement may shortchange children's development in other areas, such as social, athletic, artistic, and musical endeavours. Rammey warns that parental pressure for academic achievement can deprive children from developing their social skills (cited in Langway et al., 1983). A case study showed that a boy whose play was structured around academic activities lagged in social development (Werner & Strother, 1987).

Child Clinical Symptoms Contrary to prediction, there was a negative relation between parent expectations and a child's clinical symptoms, but there was also a positive curvilinear relation between child's perception of parent expectations and a child's clinical symptoms. Clinical symptoms included somatic complaints, delinquency, aggression, and behaviour self-esteem. As discussed above,

it makes sense that parent expectations may have a direct influence on child outcomes. The finding of a negative relation is inconsistent with popular literature (e.g., Elkind, 1979, 1981a, 1981b, 1986c; Sterling Honig, 1986), which has assumed that as parental pressure increases, a child's clinical symptoms increase. However, this assumption has not been empirically tested. On the other hand, parents may adjust their expectations for their child to correspond to their child's degree of clinical symptomatology.

A curvilinear relation was found between child's perception of parent expectations and clinical symptoms. The higher the parent expectations were perceived to be by the child, the more clinical symptoms were manifested. However, at the highest level the symptoms decreased somewhat. Reactions to perceived parental pressure seem to include either internalizing behaviour such as somatic complaints or externalizing behaviour such as delinquent or aggressive activity. The results of the present study are consistent with those of previous studies, which found that as perceived parent expectations increase psychological symptomatology increases in children (Eskilson et al., 1986) and young adults (Weiten, 1988). In recent years clinical symptomatology among children has appeared to be on the increase. Physicians' report that more and more children are experiencing headaches, ulcers, and depression, which

used to be only in adults (Elkind, 1989). Children as young as five years old are committing suicide (Elkind, 1989). An Ontario separate school board survey showed violent incidents in the schools increased 240% this past year (CBC news, 1991). If parental pressure is similarly increasing, this may be one explanation for the rise in such clinical symptomatology among children.

The negative relation between parental expectations and a child's clinical symptoms seems to be offset by a positive relation between perception of parental expectations and a child's clinical symptoms. Children's perceptions of their parents' overall expectations and parents' grade expectations were found to be higher than their parents' own expectations. A perception of higher expectations may affect children's clinical symptomatology. Or children with clinical symptoms may be more likely to incorrectly perceive their parents' expectations. The effects of the child's perception of parental pressure on clinical symptoms are limited by the fact that parental expectations were correlated with a decrease in clinical symptoms and parental expectations were positively correlated with the child's perceptions, even though the child's perceptions were positive predictors of clinical symptoms.

The children at risk for developing clinical symptoms are those with perceptions of moderately high parental expectations. In order to clarify which of these children

are most susceptible to clinical symptoms, the role of level of achievement with respect to perception of parent expectations and clinical symptoms was investigated. Level of achievement interacted with parental pressure to produce certain effects on children. The low achieving children had significantly more clinical symptoms than the moderate and high achieving children. It could be that these low achievers have a difficult time meeting perceived parent expectations and may experience clinical symptoms. The conflict children may experience in attempting to meet unrealistically high expectations was reflected in the following comment by one of the children: "my parents want me to be a doctor or lawyer, however, I will likely be a nurse or legal clerk because I am not smart enough". An alternate explanation to these low achievers reporting more clinical symptoms than high or moderate achievers is that the clinical symptoms interfere with the child's ability to achieve. Regardless, children with perceptions of moderately high expectations and low achievement are the ones most susceptible to clinical symptoms.

Limitations of the Study

Several limitations in the present study warrant consideration in the interpretation of the results.

The relations among background factors, parental expectations, perception of expectations, and child outcomes are assumed to have an hierarchial order. While the author

endorses a bidirectional or transactional approach to model development, the proposed model heuristically focused only on one direction, that from background factors to child outcomes. The "static" nature of measurement of the variables is a problematic aspect of model testing. The data used in the present study were collected synchronously, rather than longitudinally, and therefore provide correlational, and not causal, evidence.

A well defined construct of parental pressure and empirically constructed tests to identify parental pressure are not easily found in the literature. While the term pressure has been widely discussed by the lay public and in popular literature, it has seldom been used by researchers. The present study defined parental pressure by subdividing it into discrete units of expectations and behaviours. However, additional research is needed to construct more elegant measures of these units of parent pressure. The measurement of parents' own aspirations and parent behaviour constructs were weak. Future investigations should include more refined measures of parents' own aspirations and parent behaviour.

A third limitation of the present research is that the results could be influenced by the nature of the cities, where the sample was drawn. The sample is probably representative of the population in the cities, which were skewed toward blue collar occupations with fewer white

collar and professional occupations. Given that SES has been found to be positively related to parental educational expectations, an attempt was made to obtain a majority of the sample from the most affluent areas in the cities. There was an adequate number of parents with high parental expectations and variation in parental expectations. However, if the study had been conducted in an affluent neighbourhood of a city, where there were more white collar and professional occupations, a greater number of parents with extremely high expectations may have participated and a greater impact may have been seen on the children. Future research on such a sample is needed.

As parental pressure and the psychological effects were measured through self-report data, these findings suffer from the usual limitations of self-report data. Self-report data is often biased by incorrect recall and is susceptible to social desirability tendencies. Also, parents' and child's honest perceptions of their own behaviour may not have been consistent with their actual behaviour. Although not evaluated in this study, observation of actual expressions of expectations and behaviour are recommended methods which can be used in conjunction with self-report data. Since parent and child reports sometimes differed, future researchers should continue to rely on the ratings from both parents and children in order to ensure valid data.

Participants in this study were volunteers. As a result, the possibility of self-selection biases in the sample must be addressed. Parents choosing not to volunteer may have selected themselves out of the study due to possible defensiveness about their parenting skills or fear of detecting clinical symptomatology in their children. Thus, the method of data collection employed in the present research may have inadvertently discouraged potential parents with extreme expectations for their children and children with adverse effects.

Implications of the Study

The findings of the present study suggest that there are parents who are pushing their children to achieve. It is a very real phenomenon and not media hype, even in cities with comparatively few white collar and professional occupations. While much of the popular literature has indicated that parental pressure has negative effects on children, the present empirical study suggests that parental pressure generally has favourable effects on children. The first implication of the study is that one cannot assume apriori that parental pressure is bad. Increased perceived parental expectations seem to be beneficial to children's self-esteem and school interest. It could be as a child's perception of parent expectations to achieve increases, a child feels his/her parents have faith in him/her and as a consequently his/her self-esteem increases. Also, it could

be as a child's perception of parent expectations to achieve increases, a child's concentration on achievement-related activities increases and this is reflected in his/her school interest. On the other hand, increased perceived parent expectations seem to put some children at risk for developing clinical symptoms. Reactions to perceived parental pressure seem to include either internalizing behaviour such as somatic complaints or externalizing behaviour such as delinquent or aggressive activity. Where does parental encouragement end and pushing the child too much begin, and why do some children cope with their parents' demands, while others manifest psychological problems?

Child's perception of parental expectations generally mapped parental expectations. However, child and parent perceptions of parents' overall expectations and parents' grade expectations differed somewhat, underscoring the notion that the child's point of view is critical. Why do children see their parents' expectations somewhat differently than parents themselves do? Parent behaviour likely is a mediating factor between parent expectations and child outcomes, even though it could not be tested as part of the model in the present study. For example, high parental expectations, when paired with supportive behaviours, may yield a better adjusted child than when paired with nonsupportive behaviours. A child's perception

of parent involvement in educational activities was found to be positively correlated with a child's perception of parent expectations in the present study. Thus, perception of involvement may be a good indicator of a child's general experience. Parents should discuss with their children their mutual perceptions of expectations and how they are deduced. Parents should be made aware of both the subtle and nonsubtle ways in which they are influencing their children. Children with clinical symptoms may be more likely to incorrectly perceive their parents' expectations. Teachers and clinicians can help families with this communication.

The findings also have implications for parents, teachers, and others associated with children. It is recommended that parents be made aware that contrary to popular literature pushing children to achieve generally has positive consequences. In order to match parents' expectations with their children's potential, parents should be provided with information about child's developmental norms. Parents and teachers need to be cognizant that the children with perceptions of moderately high parental expectations and low achievement are at most risk for developing clinical symptoms. Clinical symptoms may be an effect of parental pressure or a cause of low achievement. Elkind (1977) advises to put child ability into the parent teaching equation. Clinicians doing family therapy should

be alert to parental pressure as a favourable effect and parental pressure as a link to children's symptomatology for those children in the high risk group.

Future Research Directions

The trend of parents pushing their children to achieve is based on social and political ethos and not empirical findings. Much of the popular literature suggests that parental pressure has negative effects on children. As far as this author can document, the present study is one of the first empirical studies of parental pressure and its relationship to the psychological wellbeing of children. The present study assessed parental expectations and the relation to three child outcomes: self-esteem, school interest, and clinical symptoms. Future research is needed to bridge the gap between research on one hand and parenting on the other. It is important to have the practice of parenting firmly grounded in the bedrock of family research.

Greater emphasis is needed in future research to test the process or mechanisms through which parental pressure effects the psychological functioning of children. Parents' own aspirations and parent behaviour likely play an important role in parental pressure. Even though these parts of the model could not be tested in the present study, they should be included in future models. Also, given the fact that level of achievement interacted with parental pressure to produce certain effects on children, its

importance should be further tested. Unfortunately, it was not possible to fully investigate it in the present study with the limited measure of achievement. Future studies should include several reliable measures of achievement.

A similar study with families from an affluent neighbourhood of a city would yield further worthwhile information about the impact of parental pressure on children. A greater number of families within various ethnic backgrounds and children of other age groups should also be included in such a study. Additionally, parent pressure in other areas such as sports and music should be examined.

In summary, parental pressure to achieve seems to be a real phenomenon. Contrary to previous predictions, the present study indicated that parental pressure generally has favourable effects on children. Increased perceived parental expectations appear to be beneficial to children's self-esteem and school interest, but put some children at risk for developing clinical symptoms. Some parental push to achieve seems to be valuable for children, but at the same time some slack is probably needed to allow children a chance to appreciate and experience the highly important period of life called childhood.

ENDNOTES

1 Potential difficulties with the instructions and wording of the adapted and constructed items, as well as ascertaining the approximate length of time for completion of the questionnaires were determined in advance. In order to do so, the questionnaires were filled out by several volunteers who fell into the two age groups under study. Ambiguities and poorly understood portions were adjusted and retested prior to conducting the actual study.

2 The Family Environment Schedule (FES, Marjoribanks, 1979) used as a basis for adaptation in the present study is different than the widely used questionnaire with the same name, the Family Environment Schedule (Moos, 1974).

3 The degrees of freedom may vary due to missing data ($n = 118$).

4 While regression procedures allow categorical variables to be coded as a series of contrasts, such procedures are not typically applied in causal modeling techniques. Moreover, the number of contrasts necessary to represent the index of ethnic categories for the present sample (6) would undermine the power and unduly complicate the path analysis.

5 A detailed summary of the computations for all path analyses can be found in Appendix P.

6 There is a possible trend toward significance between Sex of Child and Parent Expectations because the zero-order correlation was significant (r = .19, p < .01). The incongruenty of results can be explained by a loss of cases in a listwise procedure required for the path analyses. These cases likely included strong sex differences for parent expectations.

7 Quadratric regressions were run separately for mother and father to compare them. Similar patterns were found to the quadratric regression run for the combined parents.

8 The regression equation for clinical symptoms on child's perception of parental expectations is as follows:

Clinical Symptoms = -1.775258 + 1.124381 (perception of expectations) - .161709 (perception of expectations)^2

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APPENDIX A

PARENTAL CONSENT FORM

Department of Psychology
University of Windsor
Windsor, Ontario, N9B 3P4

Dear Parents/Guardians:

We are conducting a study on parental expectations and child performance with children in grades 7 and 8. This study has been approved by the School Board.

This study should add to our understanding of how parents' expectations of their children to achieve relate to their children's performance in school in things such as level of achievement and level of motivation. Children acquire certain ideas of what their parents expect from them, and this in turn often influences how they do at school and grow in other areas. It is hoped that the results of this study will aid teachers, coaches, and other people involved with education make the most of their opportunities to teach children.

Your child will be asked to fill out four questionnaires involving marking what they think of themselves, what they think their parents expectations are, what they think about schoolwork, and what they think their own expectations are. Copies of the questionnaires are available in the principal's office or from us for perusal. The study will involve approximately 40 minutes of classroom time.

Enclosed are a group of questions about your opinions and ideas about what you expect from your child. We are sending these questionnaires in hopes of finding out your educational expectations for your child. Enclosed are two questionnaires, one for the mother and one for the father. We would appreciate it if you and your spouse (if applicable) each answer one questionnaire. There are no right or wrong answers, so answer according to you own opinions. We expect it will take approximately 20 minutes.

We would like to assure you that all results will be treated confidentially and be used for research purposes only. Your name will only appear on the permission form. A code number will be assigned to you so that responses remain anonymous. The results of the study will be analyzed and presented in group form only. Individual responses will not be referred to in any way. The results of the study will be available to those who are interested in the findings.

Participation in this project is voluntary. If you agree to participate, you may withdraw from this study at any time. If you wish you and your child to participate in this study, please complete the questionnaire enclosed for you and sign the consent form at the bottom of this letter and return both in the self-addressed envelopes with your child to the school. We appreciate your cooperation in this study. If you have any questions, we will be very pleased to answer them and can be reached at (519) 252-6243 (home) or (519) 253-4232 (school).

Thank you very much,

Anne Robinson, M.A.
Principal Investigator

Ann McCabe, Ph.D
Project Supervisor

Parental/Guardian Consent:

I, _____

GIVE my permission _____
DO NOT GIVE my permission _____

for my child _____ to participate in the research study conducted by Anne Robinson and Dr. Ann McCabe.

Date _____ _____
Signature of Parent/Guardian

APPENDIX B

HOLLINGSHEAD'S TWO-FACTOR INDEX OF SOCIAL STATUS FORMULA

Hollingshead's Two-Factor Index of Social Status formula is as follows:

Factor	Scale Score	Factor Weight	Score x Weight
Occupation	y = (1-7)	7	y x 7
Education	y = (1-7)	4	y x 4
Index of Social Position score			sum

Occupation Item

What job do you have?

7 executives and owners of large concerns and major professionals
6 managers and owners of medium concerns and minor professionals
5 administrative personnel of large concerns, owners of small independent businesses, and semiprofessionals
4 owners of little businesses, clerical and sales workers, and technicians
3 skilled workers
2 semi-skilled workers
1 unskilled workers

Education Item

What education level did you reach?

7 graduate professional training
6 university graduation
5 community college graduation
4 high school graduation (grade 12/13)
3 partial high school
2 junior high school (completed 7th, 8th or 9th grade)
1 less than 7 years of school

APPENDIX C

PARENT EXPECTATIONS QUESTIONNAIRE (PEQ)

Code Number:_____

Questionnaire pertains to: _____

1. What is your relationship to _____?
   Mother _____
   Father _____
   Other _____

2. Sex of Child M F

3. Age of Child: _____

4. How many children are in the family? _____

Child No. number	Age of child (begin with oldest)	Sex M	F
1	_____	M	F
2	_____	M	F
3	_____	M	F
4	_____	M	F
5	_____	M	F
6	_____	M	F
7	_____	M	F
8	_____	M	F
9	_____	M	F
10	_____	M	F
11	_____	M	F
12	_____	M	F

For the above question, please indicate the child in question with a star beside the child number.

5. What educational level did you reach?

6. How much education do you <u>want</u> your child to receive?

   6 postgraduate education (a higher degree)
   5 graduate from university (a first degree)
   4 at least some university
   3 graduate from community college
   2 finish high school, or as much school as possible
   1 leave school as soon as possible
   other answer - comment:

7. How much education do you really expect your child to receive?

   6 postgraduate education (a higher degree)
   5 graduate from university (a first degree)
   4 at least some university
   3 graduate from community college
   2 finish high school, or as much school as possible
   1 leave school as soon as possible
     other answer - comment:

8. What grades (or marks) do you want your child to receive on his/her final report card?

   5 All A's
   4 Mainly A's with some B's
   3 All B's
   2 Mainly B's with some C's
   1 Mainly C's
   0 As long as s/he does the best s/he can
     Other answer - comment:
   (A = Excellent; B = Good; C = Satisfactory)

9. What grades (or marks) do you really expect your child to receive on his/her final report card?

   5 All A's
   4 Mainly A's with some B's
   3 All B's
   2 Mainly B's with some C's
   1 Mainly C's
   0 As long as s/he does the best s/he can
     Other answer - comment:
   (A = Excellent; B = Good; C = Satisfactory)

10. What do you consider a good grade?

   5 All A's
   4 Mainly A's with some B's
   3 All B's
   2 Mainly B's with some C's
   1 Mainly C's
     Other answer - comment:
   (A = Excellent; B = Good; C = Satisfactory)

11. What topic is your child studying (or has just finished studying) in arithmetic?

12. When was your child's last test?

13a) Do you expect your child to spend a regular amount of time each day at his/her studies or homework outside of schooltime?

1 Yes
0 No

b) If yes, how much time do you expect your child to spend on his/her work each day?

14. How often do you praise your child or congratulate your child for his/her schoolwork?

15. Do you discuss with your child how s/he is doing at school? If yes, how often?

16a) What does your child generally do between the time s/he comes home from school and supper?

b) After your supper what does your child generally do?

17. If your child has older brothers or sisters: How frequently does your child get together with any older brothers or sisters to get help with homework or reading?

very often	7	hardly ever	3
often	6	never	2
sometimes	5	no older brothers	
not very often	4	or sisters	1

18. If your child has younger brothers or sisters: How frequently does your child get together with younger brothers or sisters and play at teaching them?

very often	7	hardly ever	3
often	6	never	2
sometimes	5	no younger brothers	
not very often	4	or sisters	1

19a) Do you have a dictionary in your home?

1 Yes 0 No

b) If yes, how often do you and your child get together to look at it?

20. What were your most favourite educational activities you and your child have done together during the past six months? (for example, visits to library, exhibits, working on projects, various trips etc.)

21a) Is your child interested in hobbies, sports or activities at the moment?

1 Yes 0 No

If yes, list the hobbies, sports and activities:

_____

_____

_____

_____

b) Who seemed to get your child interested in these activities?

22. How many recreational activities (if any) do you and your child do together at home per month?

23. Could you please circle at what age you did or you would expect your child to be allowed to do the following by herself/himself?

		Age
a)	earn own spending money	6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16
b)	be able to undress and go to bed by herself/himself	6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16
c)	to know her/his way around the neighbourhood so she/he can play where she/he wants to without getting lost	6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16
d)	to make friends and visit their homes	6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16
e)	to stay alone at home at night	6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16
f)	to make decisions like choosing clothes or deciding how to spend money	6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16
g)	to act as a babysitter at someone else's home	6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16
h)	to sleep at a friend's home overnight	6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16
i)	go to the movies alone	6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16
j)	go on an overnight trip organized by the school	6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16

24. What job do you have?

25a) Would you like to change your job, or are you happy to stay in your present job?

2 Yes: would like to change
1 No: content to stay in present job
0 No job

b) If yes, have you made any plans which might allow you to change jobs?

1 Yes
0 No

c) If yes, what are your plans?

26. I know it is not possible to know what job your child will have when s/he grows up. However, if you were able to direct your child to a job, what kind of jobs would you select?

27. What do you think s/he will most likely do when he grows up?

28a) Does your child take any lessons <u>outside</u> of the school? (e.g. music, art, academic subjects, sports coaching)

1 Yes 0 No

b) If yes, what does your child take?

c) Whose idea was it that your child should take these lessons?

In order to help us appreciate the contribution made by various cultures and religions, we would appreciate your willingness to complete these remaining optional questions:

---

29. Please indicate your ethnic background:

English _____
Italian _____
Irish _____
French Canadian _____
Chinese _____
Other: Please indicate: _____

30. In what country were you born?

_____

In what country was your child born?

_____

31. Please indicate your religious background:

Protestant _____
Roman Catholic _____
Jewish _____
Other: Please indicate: _____

APPENDIX D

SCORING KEY FOR THE OPEN-ENDED ITEMS ON THE PARENT EXPECATIONS QUESTIONNAIRE (PEQ)

Code Number:_____

Questionnaire pertains to: _____

1. **What is your relationship to** _____**?**
   Mother _____
   Father _____
   Other _____

   Mother = 1
   Father = 2
   Other = 3

2. **Sex of Child M F**

   Male = 1
   Female = 2

3. **Age of Child:** _____

   record age eg. 10, 11, 12, 13

4. **How many children are in the family?** _____

Child No. number	Age of child (begin with oldest)	Sex M	F
1	_____	M	F
2	_____	M	F
3	_____	M	F
4	_____	M	F
5	_____	M	F
6	_____	M	F
7	_____	M	F
8	_____	M	F
9	_____	M	F
10	_____	M	F
11	_____	M	F
12	_____	M	F

For the above question, please indicate the child in question with a star beside the child number.

record number of children in the family and the child in question's family position (ie. child number).

11. What topic is your child studying (or has just finished studying) in arithmetic?

4 knows specific topics (eg. division of fractions)
3 knows general topic (eg. fractions)
2 has no idea of present topics but mentions some earlier topics that were studied
1 has no idea of the topics that have been studied

12. When was your child's <u>last</u> test?

1 = knowledge of last test
0 = no knowledge of last test

13a) Do you expect your child to spend a regular amount of time each day at his/her studies or homework outside of schooltime?

1 Yes
0 No

b) If yes, how much time do you expect your child to spend on his/her work each day?

4 more than 2 hours each weekday
3 between 1 and 2 hours each day
2 30 - 60 minutes each day
1 less than 30 minutes each day
0 no time

14. How often do you praise your child or congratulate your child for his/her schoolwork?

3 frequently to very frequently
2 seldom / never praise to occasionally
1 contingent

15. Do you discuss with your child how s/he is doing at school? If yes, how often?

4 very frequently
3 frequently
2 occasionally
1 seldom / never discuss

16a) What does your child generally do between the time s/he comes home from school and supper?
b) After your supper what does your child generally do?

combine 16a and 16b for scoring

academic achievement oriented activities
4 predominately academic achievement relevant activities, if many of the activites are academic achievement related (eg. homework, computer, academic courses)
3 moderate level of academic achievement relevant activities, if a few of the activities are academic achievement related (eg. homework, courses, sports, television)
2 somewhat academic achievement relevant activities, if a limited number of the activities are academic achievement related (eg. homework, sports, play)
1 no academic achievement relevant activities (eg. television, radio, video games)

19a) Do you have a dictionary in your home?

1 Yes 0 No

b) If yes, how often do you and your child get together to look at them?

3 about once (or more) a week
2 once or twice a month
1 never, or not very often
0 do not have a dictionary at home

20. What were your most favourite educational activities you and your child have done together during the past six months? (for example, visits to the library, exhibits, working on projects, various trips etc.)

1 activity
0 no activities

21a) Is your child interested in hobbies, sports or activities at the moment?

1 Yes 0 No

If yes, list the hobbies, sports and activities:

do not include: watch TV/ listen to music/ telephone/ play outside

b) Who seemed to get your child interested in these activities?

3 parent(s)
2 parent(s) and child
1 not by parent(s)

amount of parent initiation of activities
4 high amount of parent initiation, anytime parent(s) are primarily involved in initiating many activities
3 moderate amount of parent initiation, if parent(s) are involved in initiating a few activities and either parent(s) and child mutually or someone other than parent(s) initiates a few activities
2 limited amount of parent initiation, predominately mutual parent(s) and child initiation of activities and very limited sole parent(s) or someone other than parent(s) initiation of activities
1 no parent initiation, if someone other than the parent(s) initiates the child to do activities or the child does not take part in activities

22. How many recreational activities (if any) do you and your child do together at home per month?

1 presence of activity
0 no activity

25a) Would you like to change your job, or are you happy to stay in your present job?

1 Yes: would like to change
0 No: content to stay in present job
9 No job

b) If yes, have you made any plans which might allow you to change jobs?

1 Yes
0 No

c) If yes, what are your plans?

mobility action
3 high aspirations, if presently taking action toward job move (eg. courses, applying for jobs)
2 medium aspirations, if plan in future to take action toward job move (eg. plan to take courses, apply for jobs)
1 no aspirations, if have no plans to change job, whether content or not content with job

26. I know it is not possible to know what job your child will have when s/he grows up. However, if you were able to direct your child to a job, what kind of jobs would you select?

5 job requiring postgraduate education or long period at university (doctor, lawyer, dentist, scientist, professor,...)
4 job requiring university degree (engineer, public servant, school teacher,...)
3 job requiring community college degree (draftsperson, journalist,...)
2 job requiring high school graduation
1 job requiring little education

if multiple answer given, score first job listed; first job rating similar to additional job rating(s)

27. What do you think s/he will most likely do when he grows up?

5 job requiring postgraduate education or long period at university (doctor, lawyer, dentist, scientist, professor,...)
4 job requiring university degree (engineer, public servant, school teacher,...)
3 job requiring community college degree (draftsperson, journalist,...)
2 job requiring high school graduation
1 job requiring little education

if multiple answer given, score first job listed; first job rating similar to additional job rating(s)

28a) Does your child take any lessons <u>outside</u> of the school? (e.g. music, art, academic subjects, sports coaching)

1 Yes 0 No

b) If yes, what does your child take?

lessons include anything where the suffix lessons seems appropriate, for eample, Italian lessons, computer lessons, piano lessons, swimming lessons
lessons do not include team sports eg. baseball, hockey, unless it is a clinic or camp

c) Whose idea was it that your child should take these lessons?

3 parent(s)
2 child and parent(s)
1 not by parent(s)

amount of parent initiation of lessons
4 high amount of parent initiation, anytime parent(s) are primarily involved in initiating many lessons
3 moderate amount of parent initiation, if parent(s) are involved in initiating a few lessons and either parent(s) and child mutually or someone other than parent(s) initiates a few lessons
2 limited amount of parent initiation, predominately mutual parent(s) and child initiation of lessons and very limited sole parent(s) or someone other than parent(s) initiation of lessons
1 no parent initiation, if someone other than the parent(s) initiates the child to take lessons or the child does not take any lessons

In order to help us appreciate the contribution made by various cultures and religions, we would appreciate your willingness to complete these remaining optional questions:

---

29. Please indicate your ethnic background:

1 North American
2 French Canadian
3 Mediterranean
4 West Europe
5 East Europe
6 Middle and Far East
7 Mixed

30. In what country were you born?

1 parent born in Canada
2 parent not born in Canada

In what country was your child born?

1 child born in Canada
2 child not born in Canada

31. Please indicate your religious background:

1 Protestant
2 Roman Catholic
3 Other

APPENDIX E

LIST OF ITEM NUMBERS BY SCALE FOR THE PARENT EXPECTATIONS QUESTIONNAIRE (PEQ)

List of Items Numbers Grouped According to Scales on the Parent Expectations Questionnaire

Parents' Expectations for the Child
6, 7, 8, 9, 26, 27

Parents' Own Aspirations
25

Parent Reinforcement of Academic Expectations for the Child (Reinforcement)
14

Parent Collection of Information Regarding the Child's Achievement (Information)
11, 12, 15

Parent Promotion of Education (Education)
19, 20

Activities Initiated (Initiation)
16, 21, 28

Homework Demand
13

APPENDIX F

CHILD'S PERCEPTION OF

PARENT EXPECTATIONS QUESTIONNAIRE (CPPEQ)

Code Number:_____

1. How much education do you think your parents <u>want</u> you to receive?

Mother	Father	
6	6	advanced degree from university
5	5	graduate from university (a first degree)
4	4	at least some university
3	3	graduate from community college
2	2	finish high school, or as much school as possible
1	1	leave school as soon as possible
		other answer - comment:

2. How much education do you think your parents really <u>expect</u> you will receive?

Mother	Father	
6	6	advanced degree from university
5	5	graduate from university (a first degree)
4	4	at least some university
3	3	graduate from community college
2	2	finish high school, or as much school as possible
1	1	leave school as soon as possible
		other answer - comment:

3. What grades do you think your parents <u>want</u> you to receive on your final report card?

5 All A's
4 Mainly A's with some B's
3 All B's
2 Mainly B's with some C's
1 Mainly C's
0 As long as I do the best I can
Other answer - comment:
(A = Excellent; B = Good; C = Satisfactory)

4. What grades do you think your parents really expect you to receive on your final report card?

   5 All A's
   4 Mainly A's with some B's
   3 All B's
   2 Mainly B's with some C's
   1 Mainly C's
   0 As long as I do the best I can
     Other answer - comment:
   (A = Excellent; B = Good; C = Satisfactory)

5. What do your parents consider to be a good grade?

   5 All A's
   4 Mainly A's with some B's
   3 All B's
   2 Mainly B's with some C's
   1 Mainly C's
     Other answer - comment:
   (A = Excellent; B = Good; C = Satisfactory)

6. Would your parents know what topic you are studying (or have just finished studying) in arithmetic?

Mother				Father			
1	Yes	0	No	1	Yes	0	No

7. Do your parents know when you wrote your last test?

Mother				Father			
1	Yes	0	No	1	Yes	0	No

8a) Do your parents expect you to spend a regular amount of time each day at your studies or homework outside of schooltime?

Mother	Father	
1	1	Yes
0	0	No

b) If yes, how much time do they expect you to spend on his/her work each day?

Mother Father

9. How often do your parents praise you or congratulate you for your schoolwork?

Mother Father

10. Do your parents discuss with you how you are doing at school? If yes, how often?

11a) What do you generally do between the time you come home from school and supper?

b) After your supper what do you generally do?

12. If you have older brothers or sisters: How frequently do you get together with any older brothers or sisters to get help with homework or reading?

very often	7	hardly ever	3
often	6	never	2
sometimes	5	no older brothers	
not very often	4	or sisters	1

13. If you have younger brothers or sisters: How frequently do you get together with younger brothers or sisters and play at teaching them?

very often	7	hardly ever	3
often	6	never	2
sometimes	5	no older brothers	
not very often	4	or sisters	1

14a) Do you have a dictionary in your home?

1 Yes 0 No

b) If yes, how often do you and your parents get together to look at it?

Mother Father

15. What were your most favourite educational activities you and your parents have done together since July (for example, visits to library, exhibits, working on projects, various trips etc.)?

Mother Father

16a) Are you interested in hobbies, sports or activities at the moment?

1 Yes 0 No

If yes, list the hobbies, sports and activities:

_____

_____

_____

b) Who seemed to get you interested in these activities?

17. How many recreational ("fun") activities (if any) do you and your parents do together at home per month?

Mother Father

18. What kind of jobs do you think your parents want you to have when you grow up?

Mother Father

19. What do you think your parents think you will most likely do when you grow up?

Mother Father

20a) Do you take any lessons <u>outside</u> of the school?
(e.g. music, art, academic subjects, sports coaching)

1 Yes 0 No

b) If yes, what do you take?

c) Whose idea was it that you should take these lessons?

APPENDIX G

SCORING KEY FOR THE OPEN-ENDED ITEMS ON THE CHILD'S PERCEPTION OF PARENT EXPECTATIONS QUESTIONNAIRE (CPPEB)

8a) **Do your parents expect you to spend a regular amount of time each day at your studies or homework outside of schooltime?**

Mother	Father	
1	1	Yes
0	0	No

b) **If yes, how much time do they expect you to spend on his/her work each day?**

Mother		Father
M	F	
4	4	more than 2 hours each weekday
3	3	between 1 and 2 hours each day
2	2	30 - 60 minutes each day
1	1	less than 30 minutes each day
0	0	no time

9. **How often do your parents praise you or congratulate you for your schoolwork?**

Mother		Father
M	F	
3	3	frequently to very frequently
2	2	seldom / never praise to occasionally
1	1	contingent

10. **Do your parents discuss with you how you are doing at school? If yes, how often?**

4 very frequently
3 frequently
2 occasionally
1 seldom / never discuss

11a) What do you generally do between the time you comes home from school and supper?
b) After your supper what do you generally do?

combine 11a and 11b for scoring

academic achievement oriented activities
4 predominately academic achievement relevant activities, if many of the activites are academic achievement related (eg. homework, computer, academic courses)
3 moderate level of academic achievement relevant activities, if a few of the activities are academic achievement related (eg. homework, courses, sports, television)
2 somewhat academic achievement relevant activities, if a limited number of the activities are academic achievement related (eg. homework, sports, play)
1 no academic achievement relevant activities (eg. television, radio, video games)

14a) Do you have a dictionary in your home?

1 Yes 0 No

b) If yes, how often do you and your parents get together to look at them?

Mother	**Father**
3 about once (or more) a wk	3 about once (or more) a wk
2 once or twice a month	2 once or twice a month
1 never, or not very often	1 never, or not very often
0 do not have a dictionary at home	0 do not have a dictionary at home

15. What were your most favourite educational activities you and your parents have done together since July (for example, visits to library, exhibits, working on projects, various trips etc.)?

Mother	**Father**
1 activity	1 activity
0 no activities	0 no activities

16a) Are you interested in hobbies, sports or activities at the moment?

1 Yes 0 No

If yes, list the hobbies, sports and activities:

do not include: watch TV/ listen to music/ telephone/ play outside

b) Who seemed to get you interested in these activities?

3 parent(s)
2 parent(s) and child
1 not by parent(s)

amount of parent initiation of activities
4 high amount of parent initiation, anytime parent(s) are primarily involved in initiating many activities
3 moderate amount of parent initiation, if parent(s) are involved in initiating a few activities and either parent(s) and child mutually or someone other than parent(s) initiates a few activities
2 limited amount of parent initiation, predominately mutual parent(s) and child initiation of activities and very limited sole parent(s) or someone other than parent(s) initiation of activities
1 no parent initiation, if someone other than the parent(s) initiates the child to do activities or the child does not take part in activities

17. How many recreational ("fun") activities (if any) do you and your parents do together at home per month?

Mother	**Father**
1 presence of activity	1 presence of activity
0 no activity	0 no activity

18. What kind of jobs do you think your parents <u>want</u> you to have when you grow up?

Mother			Father
M	F		
5	5	job requiring postgraduate education or long period at university (doctor, lawyer, dentist, scientist, professor,...)	
4	4	job requiring university degree (engineer, public servant, school teacher,...)	
3	3	job requiring college degree (draftsperson, journalist,...)	
2	2	job requiring high school graduation	
1	1	job requiring little education	

if multiple answer given, score first job listed; first job rating similar to additional job rating(s)

19. What do you think your parents think you will most likely do when you grow up?

Mother			Father
M	F		
5	5	job requiring postgraduate education or long period at university (doctor, lawyer, dentist, scientist, professor,...)	
4	4	job requiring university degree (engineer, public servant, school teacher,...)	
3	3	job requiring college degree (draftsperson, journalist,...)	
2	2	job requiring high school graduation	
1	1	job requiring little education	

if multiple answer given, score first job listed; first job rating similar to additional job rating(s)

20a) Do you take any lessons <u>outside</u> of the school? (e.g. music, art, academic subjects, sports coaching)

1 Yes 0 No

b) If yes, what do you take?

lessons include anything where the suffix lessons seems appropriate, for eample, Italian lessons, computer lessons, piano lessons, swimming lessons
lessons do not include team sports eg. baseball, hockey, unless it is a clinic or camp

c) Whose idea was it that you should take these lessons?

3 parent(s)
2 parent(s) and child
1 not by parent(s)

amount of parent initiation of lessons
4 high amount of parent initiation, anytime parent(s) are primarily involved in initiating many lessons
3 moderate amount of parent initiation, if parent(s) are involved in initiating a few lessons and either parent(s) and child mutually or someone other than parent(s) initiates a few lessons
2 limited amount of parent initiation, predominately mutual parent(s) and child initiation of lessons and very limited sole parent(s) or someone other than parent(s) initiation of lessons
1 no parent initiation, if someone other than the parent(s) initiates the child to take lessons or the child does not take any lessons

APPENDIX H

LIST OF ITEM NUMBERS BY SCALE FOR THE CHILD'S PERCEPTION OF PARENT EXPECTATIONS QUESTIONNAIRE (CPPEQ)

List of Items Numbers Grouped According to Scales on the Child's Perception of Parent Expectations Questionnaire

Child's Perception of Parental Expectations
1, 2, 3, 4, 18, 19

Child's Perception of Parent Reinforcement of Expectations (Reinforcement)
9

Child's Perception of Parent Collection of Information Regarding Achievement (Information)
6, 7, 10

Child's Perception of Parent Promotion of Education (Education)
14, 15

Child's Perception of Activities Initiated (Initiation)
11, 16, 20

Child's Perception of Homework Demand (Homework Demand)
8

APPENDIX I

SELF-PERCEPTION PROFILE FOR CHILDREN

What I Am Like

Name _____ Age _____ Birthday ___ _____ Group _____
Month Day

Boy or Girl (circle which)

SAMPLE SENTENCE

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
(a)	☐	☐	Some kids would rather play outdoors in their spare time	BUT	Other kids would rather watch T.V.	☐	☐
1.	☐	☐	Some kids feel that they are very *good* at their school work	BUT	Other kids *worry* about whether they can do the school work assigned to them.	☐	☐
2.	☐	☐	Some kids find it *hard* to make friends	BUT	Other kids find it's pretty *easy* to make friends.	☐	☐
3.	☐	☐	Some kids do very *well* at all kinds of sports	BUT	Other kids *don't* feel that they are very good when it comes to sports.	☐	☐
4.	☐	☐	Some kids are *happy* with the way they look	BUT	Other kids are *not* happy with the way they look.	☐	☐
5.	☐	☐	Some kids often do *not* like the way they *behave*	BUT	Other kids usually *like* the way they behave.	☐	☐
6.	☐	☐	Some kids are often *unhappy* with themselves	BUT	Other kids are pretty *pleased* with themselves.	☐	☐
7.	☐	☐	Some kids feel like they are *just as smart* as as other kids their age	BUT	Other kids aren't so sure and *wonder* if they are as smart.	☐	☐
8.	☐	☐	Some kids have *alot* of friends	BUT	Other kids *don't* have very many friends.	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
9.	☐	☐	Some kids wish they could be alot better at sports	BUT	Other kids feel they are good enough at sports.	☐	☐
10.	☐	☐	Some kids are *happy* with their height and weight	BUT	Other kids wish their height or weight were *different.*	☐	☐
11.	☐	☐	Some kids usually do the *right* thing	BUT	Other kids often *don't* do the right thing.	☐	☐
12.	☐	☐	Some kids *don't* like the way they are leading their life	BUT	Other kids *do* like the way they are leading their life.	☐	☐
13.	☐	☐	Some kids are pretty *slow* in finishing their school work	BUT	Other kids can do their school work *quickly.*	☐	☐
14.	☐	☐	Some kids would like to have alot more friends	BUT	Other kids have as many friends as they want.	☐	☐
15.	☐	☐	Some kids think they could do well at just about any new sports activity they haven't tried before	BUT	Other kids are afraid they might *not* do well at sports they haven't ever tried.	☐	☐
16.	☐	☐	Some kids wish their body was *different*	BUT	Other kids *like* their body the *way* it is.	☐	☐
17.	☐	☐	Some kids usually *act* the way they know they are *supposed* to	BUT	Other kids often *don't* act the way they are supposed to.	☐	☐
18.	☐	☐	Some kids are *happy* with themselves as a person	BUT	Other kids are often *not* happy with themselves.	☐	☐
19.	☐	☐	Some kids often *forget* what they learn	BUT	Other kids can remember things *easily.*	☐	☐
20.	☐	☐	Some kids are always doing things with *alot* of kids	BUT	Other kids usually do things *by themselves.*	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
21.	☐	☐	Some kids feel that they are *better* than others their age at sports	BUT	Other kids *don't* feel they can play as well.	☐	☐
22.	☐	☐	Some kids wish their physical appearance (how they look) was *different*	BUT	Other kids *like* their physical appearance the way it is.	☐	☐
23.	☐	☐	Some kids usually get in *trouble* because of things they do	BUT	Other kids usually *don't* do things that get them in trouble.	☐	☐
24.	☐	☐	Some kids *like* the kind of *person* they are	BUT	Other kids often wish they were someone else.	☐	☐
25.	☐	☐	Some kids do *very well* at their classwork	BUT	Other kids *don't* do very well at their classwork.	☐	☐
26.	☐	☐	Some kids wish that more people their age liked them	BUT	Other kids feel that most people their age *do* like them.	☐	☐
27.	☐	☐	In games and sports some kids usually *watch* instead of play	BUT	Other kids usually *play* rather than just watch.	☐	☐
28.	☐	☐	Some kids wish something about their face or hair looked *different*	BUT	Other kids *like* their face and hair the way they are.	☐	☐
29.	☐	☐	Some kids do things they know they *shouldn't* do	BUT	Other kids *hardly ever* do things they know they shouldn't do.	☐	☐
30.	☐	☐	Some kids are very *happy* being the way they are	BUT	Other kids wish they were *different.*	☐	☐
31.	☐	☐	Some kids have *trouble* figuring out the answers in school	BUT	Other kids almost *always* can figure out the answers.	☐	☐
32.	☐	☐	Some kids are *popular* with others their age	BUT	Other kids are *not* very popular.	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
33.	☐	☐	Some kids *don't* do well at new outdoor games	BUT	Other kids are *good* at new games right away.	☐	☐
34.	☐	☐	Some kids think that they are good looking	BUT	Other kids think that they are not very good looking.	☐	☐
35.	☐	☐	Some kids behave themselves very well	BUT	Other kids often find it hard to behave themselves.	☐	☐
36.	☐	☐	Some kids *are* not very happy with the way they do alot of things	BUT	Other kids think the way they do things is *fine*.	☐	☐

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APPENDIX J

ITEM LIST BY SCALE FOR THE SELF-PERCEPTION PROFILE FOR CHILDREN

Master list of items grouped according to subscale.

Item # refers to the position on the child's form. Items keyed *positively* (+) present the *more* competent or adequate self-description as the first part of the statement, whereas items keyed *negatively* (–) present the *less* competent or adequate self-description first.

Item #	Keyed	
		SCHOLASTIC COMPETENCE
1	+	Some kids feel that they are very good at their schoolwork BUT Other kids worry about whether they can do the schoolwork assigned to them.
7	+	Some kids feel like they are just as smart as other kids their age BUT Other kids aren't so sure and wonder if they are as smart.
13	–	Some kids are pretty slow in finishing their schoolwork BUT Other kids can do their schoolwork quickly.
19	–	Some kids often forget what they learn BUT Other kids remember things easily.
25	+	Some kids do very well at their classwork BUT Other kids don't do well at their classwork.
31	–	Some kids have trouble figuring out the answers in school BUT Other kids can almost always figure out the answers.
		SOCIAL ACCEPTANCE
2	–	Some kids find it hard to make friends BUT Other kids find it's pretty easy to make friends.
8	+	Some kids have alot of friends BUT Other kids don't have very many friends.
14	–	Some kids would like to have alot more friends BUT Other kids have as many friends as they want. (New item).
20	+	Some kids are always doing things with alot of kids BUT Other kids usually do things by themselves.
26	–	Some kids wish that more people their age liked them BUT Other kids feel that most people their age do like them.
32	+	Some kids are popular with others their age BUT Other kids are not very popular.

Item #	Keyed	
		ATHLETIC COMPETENCE
3	+	Some kids do very well at all kinds of sports BUT Other kids don't feel that they are very good when it comes to sports.
9	–	Some kids wish they could be alot better at sports BUT Other kids feel they are good enough at sports.
15	+	Some kids think they could do well at just about any new sports activity they haven't tried before BUT Other kids are afraid they might not do well at sports they haven't ever tried.
21	+	Some kids feel that they are better than others their age at sports BUT Other kids don't feel that they can play as well.
27	–	In games and sports some kids usually watch instead of play BUT Other kids usually play rather than watch.
33	–	Some kids don't do well at new outdoor games BUT Other kids are good at new games right away.
		PHYSICAL APPEARANCE
4	+	Some kids are happy with the way they look BUT Other kids are not happy with the way they look.
10	+	Some kids are happy with their height and weight BUT Other kids wish their height or weight were different.
16	–	Some kids wish their body was different BUT Other kids like their body the way it is.
22	–	Some kids wish their physical appearance (how they look) was different BUT Other kids like their physical appearance the way it is.
28	–	Some kids wish that something about their face or hair looked different BUT Other kids like their face and hair the way it is.
34	+	Some kids think that they are good looking BUT Other kids think that they are not very good looking.
		BEHAVIORAL CONDUCT
5	–	Some kids often do not like the way they behave BUT Other kids usually like the way they behave.
11	+	Some kids usually do the right thing BUT Other kids often don't do the right thing.
17	+	Some kids usually act the way they know they are supposed to BUT Other kids often don't act the way they are supposed to.
23	–	Some kids usually get into trouble because of the things they do BUT Other kids usually don't do things that get them in trouble.
29	–	Some kids do things they know they shouldn't do BUT Other kids hardly ever do things they know they shouldn't do.
35	+	Some kids behave themselves very well BUT Other kids often find it hard to behave themselves. (New item).

Item #	Keyed	GLOBAL SELF-WORTH
6	–	Some kids are often unhappy with themselves BUT Other kids are pretty pleased with themselves.
12	–	Some kids don't like the way they are leading their life BUT Other kids do like the way they are leading their life.
18	+	Some kids are usually happy with themselves as a person BUT Other kids are often not happy with themselves.
24	+	Some kids like the kind of person they are BUT Other kids often wish they were someone else.
30	+	Some kids are very happy being the way they are BUT Other kids wish they were different.
36	–	Some kids are not happy with the way they do alot of things BUT Other kids think the way they do things is fine.

APPENDIX K

SCORING KEY FOR THE SELF-PERCEPTION PROFILE FOR CHILDREN

What I Am Like

SCORING KEY

SELF-PERCEPTION PROFILE FOR CHILDREN
(Revision of the Perceived Competence Scale for Children

Susan Harter, Ph.D., University of Denver, 1985

1.	4	3	Some kids feel that they are very *good* at their school work	BUT	Other kids *worry* about whether they can do the school work assigned to them.	2	1
2.	1	2	Some kids find it *hard* to make friends	BUT	Other kids find it's pretty *easy* to make friends.	3	4
3.	4	3	Some kids do very *well* at all kinds of sports	BUT	Other kids *don't* feel that they are very good when it comes to sports.	2	1
4.	4	3	Some kids are *happy* with the way they look	BUT	Other kids are *not* happy with the way they look.	2	1
5.	1	2	Some kids often do *not* like the way they *behave*	BUT	Other kids usually *like* the way they behave.	3	4
6.	1	2	Some kids are often *unhappy* with themselves	BUT	Other kids are pretty *pleased* with themselves.	3	4
7.	4	3	Some kids feel like they are *just as smart* as as other kids their age	BUT	Other kids aren't so sure and *wonder* if they are as smart.	2	1
8.	4	3	Some kids have *alot* of friends	BUT	Other kids *don't* have very many friends.	2	1

APPENDIX L

RELIABILITY ESTIMATES FOR THE SCALES ON THE SELF-PERCEPTION PROFILE FOR CHILDREN

The Range of Reliability Estimates for the Self-Perception Profile for Children Scales Across Four Samples

Scale	Alpha Coefficients
Scholastic Competence	.80 - .85
Social Acceptance	.75 - .80
Athletic Competence	.81 - .86
Physical Appearance	.76 - .81
Behavioural Conduct	.71 - .77
Global Self-Worth	.78 - .84

APPENDIX M

INTERCORRELATIONS FOR THE SELF-PERCEPTION PROFILE FOR CHILDREN

Table 7.
Correlations among subscales for the different samples.

		Social Acceptance	Athletic Competence	Physical Appearance	Behavioral Conduct	Global Self-worth
Scholastic Competence	A	.34	.24	.32	.47	.48
	B	.24	.12	.38	.47	.54
	C	.31	.18	.31	.28	.46
	C	.53	.52	.46	.46	.61
	D	.44	.35	.38	.58	.64
Social Acceptance			.44	.38	.21	.46
			.34	.34	.20	.43
			.31	.29	.22	.41
			.45	.51	.29	.58
			.53	.37	.41	.58
Athletic Competence				.50	.10	.44
				.34	.01	.30
				.43	.08	.36
				.50	.28	.52
				.34	.25	.45
Physical Appearance					.27	.54
					.19	.58
					.12	.62
					.38	.73
					.25	.72
Behavioral Conduct						.47
						.47
						.42
						.57
						.50

Sample Groups	
A	57
B	66
C	66
C	34
D	34

APPENDIX N

SUPPLEMENTARY ITEMS AND OPEN-ENDED ITEM SCORING KEY FOR CHILD'S OWN EDUCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS, VALUE OF ACHIEVEMENT, AND LEVEL OF MOTIVATION

1. How much education do you want to receive?

   6 advanced degree from university
   5 graduate from university (a first degree)
   4 at least some university
   3 graduate from community college
   2 finish high school, or as much school as possible
   1 leave school as soon as possible

2. How much education do you really expect to receive?

   6 advanced degree from university
   5 graduate from university (a first degree)
   4 at least some university
   3 graduate from community college
   2 finish high school, or as much school as possible
   1 leave school as soon as possible

3. What kind of jobs do you want when you grow up?

4. What do you think you will most likely do when you grow up?

5a) Would you like to improve your grades?

   1 Yes 0 No

 b) If yes, what are you doing to improve them?

6a) Do you like to do well at school?

   1 Yes 0 No

 b) If yes, what is the main reason?

   1 want to please my parents
   2 want to please my teacher
   3 want to please others
   4 enjoy the schoolwork
   5 get rewarded for doing well
   6 get punished for not doing well

Scoring Key for The Open-Ended Supplementary Items

3. What kind of jobs do you want when you grow up?

5 job requiring postgraduate education or long period at university (doctor, lawyer, dentist, scientist, professor,...)
4 job requiring university degree (engineer, public servant, school teacher,...)
3 job requiring college degree (draftsperson, journalist,...)
2 job requiring high school graduation
1 job requiring little education

if multiple answer given, score first job listed; first job rating similar to additional job rating(s)

4. What do you think you will most likely do when you grow up?

5 job requiring postgraduate education or long period at university (doctor, lawyer, dentist, scientist, professor,...)
4 job requiring university degree (engineer, public servant, school teacher,...)
3 job requiring college degree (draftsperson, journalist,...)
2 job requiring high school graduation
1 job requiring little education

if multiple answer given, score first job listed; first job rating similar to additional job rating(s)

5b) If yes, what are you doing to improve your grades?

2 concrete methods of improving grades
1 vague methods or no plans of improving grades
9 do not like to improve grades

6b) If yes, what is your main reason for doing well at school?

2 intrinsic reasons (4)
1 extrinsic reasons (1, 2, 3, 5 & 6)
9 do not like to do well at school

APPENDIX O

TEACHING RATING FORM

Could you please answer the two questions below in reference to _____ (Code Number:_____). For purposes of confidentiality could you then please cut off the top portion of this sheet. Thank you very much.

Code Number:_____

1. In your judgement is this child working:

   above his/her intellectual capacity _____

   at his/her intellectual capacity _____

   below his/her intellectual capacity _____

2. Does this child have any special learning difficulties?

   Yes _____ No _____

   If yes, comment:

APPENDIX P

THE PATH ANALYSIS COMPUTATIONS FOR THE FULLY RECURSIVE MODELS AND THE PARENT PRESSURE MODELS

Path Calculations for the Fully Recursive Self-Esteem Model

$e_3 = .942$

$e_4 = .849$

$e_5 = .952$

$R^2_M = 1 - e^2_3\ e^2_4\ e^2_5$

$= 1 - .580$

$= .420$

Path Calculations for Parent Pressure-Self-Esteem Model

$e_3 = .942$

$e_4 = .854$

$e_5 = 1 - R^2_{5.4}$

$(r = .25)$

$= .968$

$M = 1 - e^2_3\ e^2_4\ e^2_5$

$= 1 - .606$

$= .394$

$$Q = \frac{1 - R^2_M}{1 - M} = \frac{1 - .420}{1 - .394} = \frac{.580}{.606} = .9570957$$

$W = -(N - d) \log Q$, where d = number of paths

$= -(114 - 5)\ (-.0438519)$

$= + 4.78$ not significant at $p < .10$, indicating model fits data.

Path Calculations for the Fully Recursive Clinical Symptoms Model

$e_3 = .942$

$e_4 = .849$

$e_5 = .941$

$R^2_M = 1 - e^2_3\ e^2_4\ e^2_5$

$= 1 - .566$

$= .434$

Path Calculations for Parent Pressure-Clinical Symptoms Model

$e_3 = .942$

$e_4 = .854$

$e_5 = 1 - R^2_{5.4}$

$(r = -.04)$

$= .999$

$M = 1 - e^2_3\ e^2_4\ e^2_5$

$= 1 - .638$

$= .362$

$$Q = \frac{1 - R^2_M}{1 - M} = \frac{1 - .434}{1 - .362} = \frac{.566}{.638} = .8871473$$

$W = -(N - d) \log Q$, where d = number of paths

$= -(114 - 5)\ (-.1197442)$

$= + 13.05$ significant at $p > .10$, indicating model does not fit data.

Path Calculations for the Fully Recursive School Interest Model

$e_3 = .942$

$e_4 = .849$

$e_5 = .838$

$R^2_M = 1 - e^2_3\ e^2_4\ e^2_5$

$= 1 - .449$

$= .551$

Path Calculations for Parent Pressure-School Interest Model

$e_3 = .942$

$e_4 = .854$

$e_5 = 1 - R^2_{5.4}$

$(r = .43)$

$= .903$

$M = 1 - e^2_3\ e^2_4\ e^2_5$

$= 1 - .522$

$= .478$

$$Q = \frac{1 - R^2_M}{1 - M} = \frac{1 - .551}{1 - .478} = \frac{.449}{.522} = .8601533$$

$W = -(N - d) \log Q$, where d = number of paths

$= -(114 - 5)\ (-.1506447)$

$= + 16.42$ significant at $p > .10$, indicating model does not fit data.

Path Calculations for the Revised Fully Recursive School Interest Model

$e_3 = .942$

$e_4 = .849$

$e_5 = .838$

$R^2_M = 1 - e^2_3\ e^2_4\ e^2_5$

$= .551$

Path Calculations for the Revised Parent Pressure-School Interest Model

$e_3 = .942$

$e_4 = .854$

$e_5 = 1 - R^2_{5.3 \text{ and } 4}$

$(R^2 = .27529)$

$= .851$

$M = 1 - e^2_3\ e^2_4\ e^2_5$

$= 1 - .463$

$= .537$

$$Q = \frac{1 - R^2_M}{1 - M} = \frac{1 - .551}{1 - .537} = \frac{.449}{.463} = .9697624$$

$W = -(N - d) \log Q$, where d = number of paths

$= -(114 - 4)\ (-.0307042)$

$= + 3.38$ not significant at $p < .10$, indicating revised model fits data.

Path Calculations for the Revised Fully Recursive Clinical Symptoms Model

$e_3 = .942$

$e_4 = .849$

$e_5 = .941$

$R^2_M = 1 - e^2_3\ e^2_4\ e^2_5$

$= .434$

Path Calculations for the Revised Parent Pressure-Clinical Symptoms Model

$e_3 = .942$

$e_4 = .849$

$e_5 = 1 - R^2_{5.3 \text{ and } 4}$

$(R^2 = .11434)$

$= .941$

$M = 1 - e^2_3\ e^2_4\ e^2_5$

$= 1 - .566$

$= .434$

$$Q = \frac{1 - R^2_M}{1 - M} = \frac{1 - .434}{1 - .434} = \frac{.566}{.566} = 1.0000$$

$W = -(N - d) \log Q$, where d = number of paths

$= -(114 - 4)\ (0)$

$= 0$, not significant at $p < .10$, indicating revised model perfectly fits data.

APPENDIX Q

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

Table Q.1

Correlation Matrix of the Items Measuring Parent Expectations

Item Number and Item Content	Item Number					
	6	7	8	9	26	27
6 idealistic education	-	.86**	.40**	.43**	.32**	.30**
7 realistic education		-	.36**	.42**	.29**	.39**
8 idealistic grade			-	.79**	.28**	.16
9 realistic grade				-	.22*	.03
26 idealistic job					-	.41**
27 realistic job						-

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table Q.2

Correlation Matrix of the Parent Education, Grade, and Job Expectations

	Expectations		
Expectations	Education	Grade	Job
Education	-	.44**	.39**
Grade		-	.23*
Job			-

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table Q.3

Correlation Matrix of the PEQ Items Measuring Parental Behaviour

Item No. and Content	Item Number									
	14	11	12	15	19B	20	16	21	28	13B
14	-	.02	-.08	.22*	.17	.15	-.05	.10	.15	-.01
11		-	.00	.16	.13	-.11	-.09	-.06	-.07	.11
12			-	-.08	-.02	.04	.02	.02	.04	-.05
15				-	.34**	.08	-.04	.17	.09	.30**
19B					-	.22*	.09	.10	-.01	.14
20						-	.07	.15	.03	.11
16							-	-.13	-.14	.09
21								-	.10	-.04
28									-	.16
13B										-

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Note: The content of the item numbers is as follows: 14 praise child, 11 topic child studying, 12 child's last test, 15 discuss school, 19B dictionary use, 20 education activities, 16 activities, 21 parent initiation of activities, 28 lessons, 13B homework time

Table Q.4

Correlation Matrix of the Items on the CPPEQ Measuring Child's Perception of Parent Expectations

Item Number and Content		Item Number					
		1	2	3	4	18	19
1	idealistic education	-	.76**	.46**	.39**	.17	.11
2	realistic education		-	.46**	.49**	.07	.04
3	idealistic grade			-	.68**	.06	.13
4	realistic grade				-	.00	-.00
18	idealistic job					-	.63**
19	realistic job						-

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table Q.5

Correlation Matrix of the Child's Perception of Parent Education, Grade, and Job Expectations

	Expectations		
Expectations	Education	Grade	Job
Education	-	.52**	.11
Grade		-	.04
Job			-

** $p < .01$.

Table Q.6

Correlation Matrix of the CPPEQ Items Measuring Child's Perception of Parental Behaviour

	Item Number									
Item Number and Content	9	6	7	10	14B	15	11	16	20	8B
9 reinf	-	.04	.11	.06	.07	-.04	.02	.02	.08	.05
6 info		-	.39**	.03	.06	.04	.10	.08	.05	.08
7 last test			-	.09	.12	.11	.15	.10	.07	.28**
10 dis. school				-	.27**	.19*	.04	.26**	.14	.26**
14B dict. use					-	.23*	.24**	.08	.03	.13
15 educ. act						-	-.05	.18	.02	.23*
11 activities							-	.05	.12	.32**
16 parent init								-	.22*	.13
20 lessons									-	.09
8B hmwk										-

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table Q.7

Correlations between Mother and Father Responses on the PEQ

Item No.	Item Content	r
6	idealistic education expectation	.54**
7	realistic education expectation	.68**
8	idealistic grade expectation	.37**
9	realistic grade expectation	.38**
11	topic child studying	.47**
12	child's last test	.35**
13b	homework time	.35**
14	praise child	.21*
15	discuss school	.39**
16	activities	.43**
19b	dictionary use	.49**
20	education activities	.38**
21	parent initiation	.49**
24	parent job	.44**
25	mobility action toward job goal	-.06
26	idealistic job expectation	.40**
27	realistic job expectation	.32**
28	lessons	.55**
5	parent education level	.55**
29	parent ethnicity	.36**
31	parent religion	.36**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table Q.8

Means of the Variables by City in Which There Was a Significant City Effect

Variable	Possible Range	City One M	City Two M
education expectations	1-6	4.73	4.23
perceived education expectations	1-6	4.96	3.86
perceived overall expectations	.67-5.33	4.25	4.34
knowledge of child's last test	0-1	1.00	.91
child activities	1-4	2.45	2.11
education activities	0-1	.96	.76

Table Q.9

Means (and Standard Deviations) for Child Outcomes by Background Factors - SES, Ethnicity, and Sex Of Child

	Social Status					Ethnicity							Sex of Child	
Child Outcome	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	M	F
Child educ exps	4.38 (1.44)	4.57 (1.15)	4.66 (1.32)	5.21 (.71)	5.11 (.78)	4.69 (1.27)	4.95 (.57)	5.17 (.72)	4.57 (1.34)	4.25 (.99)	4.80 (1.20)	4.39 (1.51)	4.52 (1.43)	4.77 (1.09)
Child job exps	3.94 (1.24)	4.22 (.94)	4.18 (.90)	3.66 (1.33)	4.00 (1.22)	4.28 (.92)	4.45 (.79)	4.04 (.96)	3.54 (1.55)	4.00 (1.26)	4.60 (.55)	3.89 (1.03)	4.04 (1.13)	4.12 (.99)
Somatic compl	58.88 (6.33)	59.56 (5.94)	58.84 (7.44)	57.47 (4.45)	56.89 (3.10)	57.09 (3.45)	57.18 (3.92)	58.42 (6.79)	61.29 (8.23)	58.17 (4.12)	59.00 (5.66)	59.03 (7.28)	58.53 (5.79)	58.67 (6.37)
Motivation	.94 (.97)	1.11 (.81)	1.13 (.83)	.47 (.80)	.56 (.88)	.97 (.87)	.70 (.82)	1.00 (1.04)	1.28 (.83)	.50 (.84)	.80 (1.10)	1.03 (.85)	1.12 (.87)	.80 (.86)
Achievement	1.94 (.43)	2.00 (.60)	1.84 (.55)	2.18 (.64)	2.44 (.53)	2.03 (.52)	1.91 (.54)	2.33 (.49)	2.21 (.70)	2.00 (.63)	2.20 (.45)	1.76 (.56)	1.95 (.55)	2.07 (.60)
Value of ach	1.06 (.24)	1.24 (.43)	1.22 (.42)	1.53 (.51)	1.33 (.50)	1.24 (.43)	1.36 (.50)	1.25 (.45)	1.36 (.50)	1.33 (.52)	1.20 (.45)	1.24 (.44)	1.19 (.40)	1.33 (.47)
Gl self-esteem	3.14 (.55)	3.01 (.53)	3.11 (.72)	3.20 (.60)	3.20 (.53)	3.24 (.62)	3.00 (.40)	3.09 (.48)	3.25 (.55)	2.58 (.81)	3.40 (.68)	2.96 (.63)	3.14 (.61)	3.05 (.60)
Social compet	51.71 (8.64)	50.44 (9.09)	50.06 (8.59)	55.35 (11.41)	64.33 (8.73)	51.68 (8.20)	54.09 (7.05)	55.58 (7.32)	52.14 (11.64)	45.00 (11.64)	51.20 (10.85)	51.53 (11.93)	50.75 (9.98)	53.53 (10.16)
Delinquency	58.06 (4.53)	58.29 (6.51)	59.00 (8.75)	58.12 (5.46)	55.89 (1.83)	57.85 (6.51)	56.00 (2.05)	56.50 (3.32)	59.71 (7.58)	55.00 (.00)	56.60 (1.82)	60.24 (8.68)	58.35 (6.72)	58.13 (6.57)
Aggression	57.59 (4.86)	58.82 (7.73)	59.54 (9.04)	59.47 (7.95)	58.44 (5.32)	58.62 (7.98)	55.45 (.93)	57.25 (4.52)	59.07 (4.80)	55.33 (.82)	55.60 (1.34)	61.61 (10.35)	59.51 (8.36)	58.49 (7.04)

Note. The key for SES and Ethnicity is as follows: SES 1 unskilled, 2 semi-skilled, 3 skilled craft, clerical, sales, 4 medium business, minor professional, 5 major business and professional, Ethnicity 1 North American, 2 French Canadian, 3 Mediterranean, 4 W. Europe, 5 E. Europe, 6 Middle and Far East, 7 mixed

Table Q.10

Summary of Analysis of Variance of Parent Expectations as a Function of Ethnicity

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F
Ethnicity	78.22	6	13.04	2.84**
Error	496.53	108	4.60	

** $p < .01$.

Means for Parent Education Expectations by Ethnicity

	Parent Education Expectations	
Ethnic Group	M	SD
North American	4.47	.96
French Canadian	5.16	.70
Mediterranean	5.10	.76
West Europe	4.20	1.22
East Europe	4.13	.92
Middle and Far East	5.40	.38
mixed	4.14	1.35

Table Q.11

Correlations between Items Measuring Parent and Child Perception of Parental Behaviour

Content	Items Measuring Parent Behaviour	Items Measuring Child's Perception of Parent Behaviour (corresponding item)	r
praise child	14	9	.08
topic	11	6	.16
last test	12	7	-.11
discuss school	15	10	.29**
dict. use	19B	14B	.35**
educ. act.	20	15	.27**
activities	16	11	.37**
parent init.	21	16	.32**
lessons	28	20	.30**
hmwk	13B	8B	.34**

** $p < .01$.

Table Q.12

Correlations between Parent Expectations and Child's Perception of Parent Expectations

	Parent Expectation			
Child's Perception of Parent Expectations	Overall	Education	Grade	Job
Overall	.54**	.58**	.37**	.27**
Education	.51**	.63**	.33**	.16
Grade	.44**	.38**	.43**	.12
Job	.18**	.20*	-.01	.30**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table Q.13

Jobs Parents Want Their Children to Have

Job	N	Job	N
doctor	16	works with animals	1
dentist	3	sales	1
veterinarian	8	secretary	1
pharmacist	1	child care worker	1
		carpenter	1
Prime Minister	1	electronics	1
millionaire	1	drafting	2
lawyer	18	electrician	1
engineer	8	welder	1
robotics	1	mechanical technician	1
pilot	1	technical trade	1
architect	5	trade job	1
accountant	3	mechanic	2
financial marketer	1	commercial artist	7
(something like I am doing)		designer	1
computer programmer	8	service industry	2
administration	1	hairdresser	1
management	2		
business	7	housekeeper	1
teacher	32		
nurse	8	hockey player	3
researcher	1		
professional	15	no answer	14
white collar job	3	their choice	13
social worker	1	financial security	9
office job	2	challenging job	5
police officer	2	happy	9
military	1	one he does his best	3
producer in visual arts	1	high education	1
self-employed	1		

Table Q.14

Jobs Children Want When They Grow Up

Job	N	Job	N
doctor	8	work with horses	2
neurologist	1	baker	1
pediatrician	4	carpenter	1
psychiatrist	1	drafter	1
heart specialist	1	secretary	1
coroner	1	world famous chef	1
dentist	2	writer of short stories	1
pediatric dentist	1	forest ranger	1
veterinarian	6	car designer	1
		fashion designer	1
psychologist	1	artist	2
lawyer	14	stewardess	1
engineer	2	model	2
marine biologist	1	professional dancer	1
scientist	1	actress	1
architect	1	fix airplanes	1
teacher	16	undertaker	1
missionary teacher	1	garbage man	1
nurse	4		
physiotherapist	1	NHL hockey player	3
accountant	3	hockey coach	1
computer programmer	5	pro baseball player	2
business person	1	football player	1
plant manager	1	pro basketball player	2
insurance agent	1	pro lacrosse player	1
good paying job	1	wrestler	1
police officer	2	sports star	1
fireman	1		
armed forces	1	do not know	2

Table Q.15

Examples of Gender Differences in Jobs Children Want

Jobs Wanted by	
Males	Females
truck driver	fashion designer
mechanic	hairdresser
car dealer/casino owner	stewardess
detective	horse trainer
golf course owner	work with children
sports stars	model/actress
fix airplanes	dancer/singer/TV star
forest ranger	a person who arranges
car designer	silk flowers and greens

Table Q.16

Correlation Matrix of Child Outcomes

	Expect		Som	Motn	Ach	V Ach	Self-Esteem						Social	Behaviour	
	Educ	Job					Glob	Sch	Soc	Ath	Phys	Behav		Delinq	Agg
Expectations															
Education	-	.21*	-.17	-.17	.30**	.17	.26**	.52**	.21**	.17	.26**	.29**	.30**	-.26**	-.12
Job		-	.06	.04	-.00	.11	.01	.07	.16	.28**	.08	-.04	.09	-.03	.05
Somatic			-	-.13	-.19	-.15	-.30**	-.20*	-.04	.04	-.02	-.30**	.10	.52**	.46**
Motivation				-	-.15	-.06	-.17-	.28**	-.16	.06	-.07	-.18	-.08	.08	.04
Achievement					-	.02	.10	.35**	-.00	.09	.10	.35**	.13	-.30**	-.18*
Value of Ach						-	.07	.11	.04	.04	-.03	-.03	.13	-.15	-.08
Self-Esteem															
Global							-	.39**	.37**	.27**	.57**	.41**	.24**	-.24**	-.29**
Scholastic								-	.27**	.36**	.32**	.33**	.38**	-.28**	-.11
Social									-	.50**	.31**	.09	.24**	-.01	-.01
Athletic										-	.36**	.02	.35**	-.06	.02
Physical											-	.23*	.25**	-.05	.00
Behaviour												-	.25**	-.46**	-.45**
Social Compet													-	-.14	-.02
Behaviour														-	.80**
Delinquency															-
Aggression															

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table Q.17

Correlations Among Child Self-Esteem, Clinical Symptoms, and School Interest

	Self-Est.	Cl. Symptom	School Interest
Self-Esteem	-	.18*	.24**
Clinical Symptom		-	-.35**
School Interest			-

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table Q.18

Summary of Analysis of Variance of Clinical Symptoms as a Function of Level of Achievement in Children with Perceptions of High Parent Expectations

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F
Level of Achievement	2	8.60	4.30	7.71
Error	77	42.98	.56	

VITA AUCTORIS

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